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REPORT

ON THE

BRITISH INDIAN COMMERCIAL MISSION TO SOUTH-EASTERN PERSIA

DURING

1904-1905.

BY

A. H. GLEADOWE-NEWCOMEN, F.R.G.S., F.S.A., PRESIDENT,

REPRESENTING THE UPPER INDIA CHAMBER OF COMMERCE AND THE INDIAN TEA CESS COMMITTEE.

CALCUTTA:

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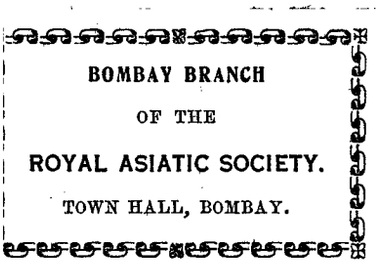

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FROM

A. H. GLEADOWE-NEWCOMEN, ESQ., F.R.G.S., F.S.A.,
PRESIDENT, COMMERCIAL MISSION TO PERSIA,

To

THE GOVERNMENT OF INDIA, AND THE COMMITTEES
OF THE UPPER INDIA CHAMBER OF COMMERCE,
CAWNPORE, AND THE INDIAN TEA CESS,
CALCUTTA.

SIRS,

I HAVE the honour to submit herewith my report on the trade of South-Eastern Persia, its present position and its prospects, together with remarks concerning certain matters, attention to which, I trust, may result in an increase in Indo-Persian Trade.

My report divides itself into :—

I.—Introduction.

II.—A General Report.

III.—Notes on Trading Centres, trade usages and other matters of interest.

IV.—(*a*) Articles of Commerce. All samples (with prices) have been submitted to the Upper India Chamber of Commerce, Cawnpore, and to the Indian Tea Cess Committee, Calcutta. These samples numbered in all 395.

(*b*) Resumé :

V.—Appendices A, B, C (with map), D, E and F.

I have experienced no little difficulty in extracting information from the Persian traders, who, in this part of the country, seem strangely disinclined to give any, though they are ready enough to talk. Again, nearly all enquiries and replies had to be made in Persian on both sides ; this placed us at a considerable disadvantage, except in the case of Indian traders, who could speak Hindustani. Thanks, however, to the assistance rendered, first by Khan Bahadur Asghar Ali, later by Major P. M. Sykes, C.M.G., and Mr. G. Grahame, His Britannic Majesty's Consuls at Kerman and Shiraz, and by Major Cox, C.I.E., Resident in the Persian Gulf, Mr. Richards, Commercial Vice-Consul, and the Consular Staff at Bushire, of whose keen interest in the Mission and its aims I cannot speak too highly, I was able to make some progress with the gathering and sifting of information.

Once the ports are left, it is impossible to secure anything in the shape of statistics in Persia, for the old road tolls and octrois have been abolished (officially that is) since the introduction of the new tariff, and no records are, or have been, kept of the ebb and flow of traffic in the inland towns.

I beg to tender my grateful thanks to the Government of India for their liberal support of the Mission, and for the arrangements made through the Consular Officials for our safe conduct and comfort. Major P. M. Sykes, C.M.G., who met us at Saiadabad, the Capital of Sirjan, and accompanied us for the most part of our tour, was of great help to us.

Mr. Grahame met us at Yezd and saw the Mission through his Province, and finally Mr. Gabriel, 2nd Assistant to the Resident, in the Persian Gulf, accompanied us from Kazaroon to Bushire, the Resident, Major Cox, C.I.E., himself escorting us in the R.I.M.S. *Lawrence* to Maskat, where we bade farewell to Persia.

Khan Bahahur Asghar Ali, who met us at Bander Abbas, and accompanied the Mission throughout its tour, was invaluable as an Interpreter and in gathering information, also as Officer in charge of our Camp and Transport I cannot speak too highly of his zeal and energy. Hospital Assistant Tafazal Hussain, in medical charge of our camp, has my best thanks; always cheerful and obliging, he earned the esteem of all. Both Khan Bahadur Asghar Ali and Tafazal Hussain were deputed to join us from the Kerman Consulate.

My thanks are due to His Majesty's Minister, and His Majesty's Diplomatic and Consular Officers generally, for their kind help and assistance in furthering the efforts of the Mission; to Messrs. Whitby Smith and New, as well as to the Members of the Indo-European Telegraph Staff; to the Officials of the Imperial Bank of Persia; to His Excellency the Minister of Customs, who placed certain statistics at my disposal; and to the various Persian and Foreign Officials, who (with the solitary exception of the Belgian Customs Official at Bander Abbas) received my Mission with the greatest kindness and courtesy, wherever it went, and who furnished us with information and assistance.

In particular, are my thanks due to the Government of His Imperial Majesty the Shah, who, besides deputing a Colonel on special duty from Tehran to accompany our Mission, supplied us with escorts of horse and foot soldiers, and gave orders to the local authorities, regarding our safe passage and the rendering of every assistance in the procuring of supplies, a matter of considerable moment in a country like Persia, where, in some cases, food-grains can only be procured from Government Officials, and where supplies are, generally speaking, scanty.*

Mr. P. F. Ryan, Secretary to the Mission, has worked hard, and I thank him.

In conclusion, it gives me much pleasure to place on record the fact that during the long journey of some 2,000 miles, mainly in south-east Persia, in the course of which we met practically every individual of importance, British prestige and influence showed itself, on the whole, not only to be predominant, but a real power for good in the land, a fact which argues well for the future of Indo-Persian Commercial relations.

I have the honour to be,

Sirs,

Your most obedient servant,

A. H. GLEADOWE-NEWCOMEN,

President, Commercial Mission to Persia.

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* I am glad to have this opportunity of acknowledging the great courtesy shown us in the Provinces of Kerman and Fars, especially, by His Imperial Highness Shoa-us-Sultaneh and His Royal Highness Rookn-ud-Dowlah, the Governor-Generals of these two Provinces, respectively.

REPORT

ON THE

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INTRODUCTION.

INCEPTION OF MISSION—

The inception of the Commercial Mission to South-Eastern Persia was as follows :—

Early in 1903, when the itinerary of Mr. Maclean, the Special Commissioner appointed by the Commercial Intelligence Committee of the Board of Trade in England, to enquire into the state of British Trade in Persia, was published, it was noticed that Yezd and South-East Persia had been omitted. His Britannic Majesty's Consul in Kerman, Major Sykes, C.M.G., called the attention of Lord Curzon's government to this, and made certain suggestions, the outcome of which was a resolution by the Indian Government to facilitate the despatch of a Commercial Mission to South-Eastern Persia.

Correspondence took place between the Government of India in the Foreign Department and the Chambers of Commerce, which terminated on the 10th December 1903. The Government of India in the Foreign Department reviewing this correspondence, in a letter (No. 1774-E. A., dated 2nd June 1904) to the Bombay Chamber of Commerce, stated that since December 10th, 1903, the organization and nature of the Mission had been further considered, and it had been decided that the Mission, if sent, should be purely commercial in character. It was added that for this reason no Engineer would accompany the Mission, a decision I greatly regret, as roads and irrigation play such an important part in the commercial advancement of a country like Persia, where there are few roads and where irrigation is in urgent need of improvement and extension.

In the course of correspondence, copies of which were circulated to all the Chambers of Commerce in India, Government asked for their assistance and co-operation in carrying out the scheme. The only bodies that made any effective response to this invitation were the Upper India Chamber of Commerce and the Indian Tea Cess Committee.

As the outcome of these negotiations, the Mission was duly formed, and I had the honour to be appointed President. My colleagues were Messrs. B. E. Luffman and P. F. Ryan, the latter of whom acted as Secretary.

OBJECTS—

The chief objects that the Mission had in view were—

(*i*) An investigation of the present state of the trade of South-Eastern Persia.

(*ii*) The examination of the various causes that have tended, or that now tend, to prevent a natural and reasonable expansion of trade, especially with India, and the reasons for any shrinkage of the same.

(*iii*) The consideration of measures which might bring about an expansion of Indo-Persian trade.

(*iv*) The introduction to Persians (traders, officials and others) of India and Indian manufactures, and the explanation of the interest the Indian Government take in fostering Indo-Persian trade, and improving mutually beneficial relations.

(*v*) The collection of statistics.

ROUTE—

The route of the Mission, as originally sketched by the Government of India, was:— Northward, from Bander Abbas to Saiadabad in Sirjan, thence to Bahramabad in Rafsinjan and Kerman. Halts were to be made at these places, the two former being centres of cotton-producing districts, and the latter the Capital of the province, and the chief trading centre. From Kerman our route to India was to have been as follows:— Bam-Narmashir, across the Gishu Pass, through the Bampur Valley and Persian Baluchistan, to Magas, thence, *viâ* Kuhak and the Kej Valley, to Gwadur or Pasni, and by steamer to Bombay.

From careful enquiries made in India, and on my arrival in Persia, I found that, especially as I had not the benefit of the co-operation of an Engineer, it would have been useless for a Mission, constituted as we were, to go into and tour through the sandy and stony land which grudgingly supports a sparse population of wild and poverty stricken nomads. The villages are few and far between, and even the largest of them is unworthy of the name of town. So far as I can ascertain there is no trade worth speaking of, or any hope of increasing it, in these parts.

I therefore decided that it was advisable to make an alteration in the programme of the tour, with the permission of the Government of India. After consultation with Major Sykes, this resolution was strengthened and the programme altered, with the sanction of the Governments of India and Persia, as follows:— Instead of returning *viâ* Bampur through Persian and British Baluchistan to Gwadur or Pasni, we toured through Narmashir, across the Gishu Pass, up the Jiruft Valley, visiting Rudbar *en route*. Thence we returned to Kerman, across the mighty snow-covered Jabal-Bariz Range. After a second brief halt at the Capital of the province we commenced the return journey to India, travelling *viâ* Yezd and Shiraz to Bushire, where we took steamer for Bombay. This changed itinerary enabled me to visit the fertile valleys of Jiruft and Rudbar, also the town of Yezd, an important trade-centre not visited by Mr. Maclean, thus, as it were, completing the exploitation of South-East Persia from a commercial point of view. I will deal in detail with the various places visited under the heading of TRADING CENTRES.

JOURNEY FROM BOMBAY TO BANDER ABBAS—

The Mission was to have sailed from Bombay on the 11th October 1904. Owing, however, to difficulties with wind and tide which rendered it impossible to ship the horses, we could not leave till the 13th of that month. Our voyage in the S.S. *Kola* to Maskat, where we transhipped to the S.S. *Goalpara*, was very comfortable—thanks to Captain. McDiarmid, who was kindness itself. Messrs. Mackinnon, Mackenzie had also given special instructions to their Agents at Maskat concerning the transhipment of our horses and goods, which was effected without trouble. We landed at Maskat and were hospitably entertained by the British Consul, Major Grey, and I was enabled to gather some information regarding the trade of this ancient port. During the course of our visit we went to the neighbouring town of Mattra, where the Banian Colony mostly lives, and here we witnessed the packing of dates, the chief article of export.

Touching at Jask, we were landed at Bander Abbas on the evening of the 21st October, and were put into quarantine at Naiband. The Quarantine Station

is situated about a mile-and-a-half from the shore, and three miles from the town of Bander Abbas and the Custom House. It proved a very comfortless place, next to nothing being provided for travellers, and the accommodation being as primitive as it was limited.

Our discomfort was increased by the annoyance given us by the Belgian Director of Customs, M. Cattersell. This official had received orders to treat the Mission with every consideration, and to admit its baggage duty free.

He either misunderstood, or took upon himself to neglect, his instructions, and ordered us while we were detained at the Quarantine Station, which, as stated above, is three miles from the Custom House and town, to hand him over all our baggage, etc., to store and appraise. These annoyances continued for some days until several telegrams, which I was forced to send at considerable trouble and expense, brought him reiterated orders. He also took it upon himself to disarm the Persian Guard, which the Deputy Governor of Bander Abbas, acting on orders received from Tehran, had supplied to escort us to the frontier of the Province of Bander Abbas. The Sultan in command reported the matter to me through Khan Bahadur Asghar Ali.

I mention these details partly to show that there is more than a little truth in the complaint, constantly heard from Indian subjects and from Persian Traders alike, that the Customs authorities often cause them quite needless trouble, and that they are specially addicted to placing unauthorized restrictions in the way of British and Indian trade. If we, who had been granted special facilities from Tehran, suffered as we did from the vagaries of the Customs Official at the Port, it is obvious that others not similarly situated must often suffer more. M. Cattersell is no longer at Bander Abbas, and the official, who has relieved him, is, I am informed, acting with consideration and tact.

The foregoing tends to show that we want a strong Consul at Bander Abbas, a man of experience and weight, and that an important post like this ought not, under any circumstances, to be left for a considerable time in charge of a Goanese clerk, as was the case when we were there. A Consul has now been appointed, and from the keenness he has shown in his work I have every confidence that the interests of British subjects will be carefully looked after.

As soon as we were free from quarantine, we proceeded to work, receiving and returning the visits of Persian Officials, and making enquiries into the trade of the port. On the 7th of November we set out on our journey northwards to Saiadabad in Sirjan.

GENERAL.

PHYSICAL FEATURES OF THE COUNTRY—

South-Eastern Persia is, with the exception of a narrow sub-tropical strip along the coast, a country with a fairly temperate climate. Even Persian Baluchistan and the terrible Lut Desert are cool in the spring and autumn and often cold in the winter. In the low country (called the "Garmsir"), Jiruft, Persian Baluchistan, Bam-Narmashir, the Bushire plain and the oases on the lower and southern part of the plateau, tropical fruits,—such as the date, lemon and orange—flourish, and even mangoes are sometimes met with; rice and tropical cereals are also grown. In the higher and colder regions fruit and grain peculiar to temperate climates succeed well.

The proportion of cultivated and cultivable land to wilderness and desert is small however, and there are evident signs that it is steadily shrinking. Yet, if irrigation, on a large scale and scientifically directed, were carried on, it would be possible to reclaim a considerable portion of this desert, for the soil is naturally fertile. Much of the water is, however, brackish, and some of it is salt to a degree, especially in the lower lands and amongst the outer ranges of the mountains.

Geographically, southern and eastern Persia may be described as a land of mountains and deserts. A few miles, 15 to 30, from the sea coast the great mountain ranges that rib Persia raise their bare and splintered walls to the sky. Stretching their snow-capped tops, range after range, all along and across the land for hundreds of miles, they throw out great spurs which touch one another. Between the treeless ridges lie valleys, often of great length, some of them 30 and some 300 miles long, but seldom of any great width. Most of these valleys are capable of cultivation with the help of irrigation.

In the gorges of the hills, and built along the banks of occasional streams, are rare villages, nestling in plantations of fruit trees. For other trees, if we except the dwarf oak, cypress, willow, Bohemian olive, tamarisk and juniper, one looks in vain. Save for the dreary camel thorn, tragacanth and other gum-yielding bushes, and the dwarf cactus, the hills stand gaunt and bare. What forest once existed has disappeared, and, as a partial consequence, the rainfall, judging from the numerous dry river beds, has decreased.

Rivers no longer flow, except immediately after rain, and then the waters, after tossing themselves in mad fury over the ground, are soon lost in the desert, only to be found again by infinite toil and labour. For the rest the waters seem to have retreated underground, and men now seek for them and win them for their fields with infinite labour by means of subterranean canals, known in South-East Persia by the Arabic name of *Kanat*, and in the North, Afghanistan and Baluchistan by the name of *Karez*.

From the hills there are lines of wells, each one surrounded by a little raised ring of earth, resembling rows of giant nests of the ordinary black ant, leading down into the valleys. These lines mark the course of the Kanats, which belong to the scattered villages and towns of the plains, or rather valleys. They extend for great distances,—10, 20, 30, and even 40 miles.

The valleys are for the most part nearly as stony and inhospitable as the hills that frown down upon them, and are often covered with hillocks of ever-shifting sand.

The villages sometimes, as in Rafsinjan and Tehrud, occur in little groups of two and four, or more. Mostly, however, they stand solitary, situated at considerable intervals, 20 to 30 miles, and sometimes even greater distances, apart, and are, as a rule, small. Indeed there are few towns that could without flattery be called really extensive, and even such places as Saiadabad, Bahramabad and Bam are really little more than large villages.

Kerman itself, the capital of the Province and a city famous in history and legend, while important, so far as the population is concerned, possesses

practically no public buildings of striking appearance, and, despite a well-built bazaar, does not impress one as being in at all a prosperous condition. This holds true also of the cities of Yezd and Shiraz, though not to the same extent. Yezd has lost much of the carrying trade that made it rich, whilst the trade of Shiraz does not increase, and many portions of the ill-kept city are crumbling to ruin.

CHARACTERISTICS OF THE PEOPLE—

The Persian peasantry and the folk of the nomad tribes, the last mostly of Turki, Kurdish, Baluch and Arab extraction, are people of good physique. The towns folk, however, and nearly all those of what may be called of good family, are not. We have in this report nothing to do with the military spirit of the nation, but though the Persians are a race of armed men and are prone to quarrels, their greatest admirers cannot accuse them of being high-spirited or war-like. The heart of the nation was broken centuries ago, and now, owing to its brains and manhood being sapped by excessive consumption of opium and unrestrained vice, the state of Persia is pitiable, and calls for much sympathy and help.

The people of Persia are poor, lazy and feckless, though they are distinctly intelligent, their apathy is only natural, considering the system of government that obtains in the "Land of the Sun," and I trust I may be forgiven for going into this subject briefly, as it bears greatly on the question of Trade Development in Persia.

Every *No-Roz* (New Year), which occurs on the 20th or 21st March, the Governor-Generalships of Provinces and Governorships of Districts are distributed by His Majesty the Shah. These Governor-Generals and Governors, in like manner, appoint the Governors, Deputy Governors, and other Officials, who serve under them. In a word, almost every place in Persia, from the highest to the lowest, is farmed out for a year, generally speaking, in which period the Farmer or Contractor has to recoup himself two or three-fold (there is no fixed taxation or limit to demands) for the expense he was put to in obtaining his post.

When the Governorship is held by a local magnate, the method answers least badly. Such an Official has to live amongst the people when he ceases to be Governor. His interests are local, and he mostly tries to renew his contract. His exactions are therefore, in a measure, reasonable and limited. When however, as is often the case, a stranger—from Tehran say—becomes Governor, the districts and population he governs are to be pitied. Caring nothing for local interests or opinion, and intending to hold his post for but a year, he wrings all that he can out of the people. Khans, traders and peasants, traders in particular, pay two tomans, where in ordinary times but one is exacted. If they demur, a short cut is found to their pockets through the soles of their feet.

Unless some drastic changes are made in the system of government, it seems almost hopeless to think of any real improvement in the condition of the people, and, as a consequence, of any considerable or immediate improvement in trade.

As matters now stand, were a Persian subject to open up trade with India, and become successful, he would at once receive the attention of the Officials, and be squeezed. The Persians have no Consuls to protect them. Our chief hope lies in persuading Indian traders (British subjects) to settle in Persia, and this they will do if they know they have Consular protection at hand. Hence my suggestions later on re "Consular Arrangements."

There is no Irrigation Department in Persia, nor have any systematic attempts been made to improve the primitive methods of cultivation and irrigation that have obtained since the time of early man. Hence the agriculturist has a constant fight against nature for his scanty crops. In town and country alike, miles on miles of Kanats bear evidence to the tireless industry of cultivators. But much of this ant-like energy is baulked of its reward by being misdirected and instinctive rather than reasonable and scientific.

The agriculturist, like the trader, finds the work of his head and hands heavily handicapped, owing to the absence of roads, and to the lack of method and justice shown by his rulers.

The Persian differs widely from the native of India, who, whatever he may spend on occasions of rejoicing or of mourning, is, whether Hindu, Sikh or Musalman, a man of few wants, and frugal to a degree. The Persian is not a man of frugal mind. He resembles the European, and especially the Englishman, in his preference for putting the money he earns on his back or into his stomach, and rejoices in good food and good clothes. The humblest Persian dresses and eats well. Few men in rags are to be seen, except amongst the poorest peasants and the swollen ranks of the professional beggars. His demands are many and various, and he has a great craving for the luxurious and showy in every department of life. He himself dresses in sober colours, and his woman folk in the streets resemble sheeted ghosts. For the peculiar in-door dresses of his women and hangings for the adornment of his house, he rejoices, however, in gay prints and cretonnes, bright-hued silks and rich satins. Like the native of India, he revels in looking glasses, lamps, coloured glass pendants, bright china, clocks, watches, knives and European "gimcracks." The floors of his house are, as a rule, carpeted with exquisite gems from the loom, which give evidence of considerable taste. He is a great drinker of tea, which he makes and drinks in a manner peculiar to himself and the Russians, and his consumption of sugar, which he procures mostly from France, Russia, Austria and Egypt, is enormous.

The constantly increasing consumption of opium, which is smoked as well as eaten, induces a considerable increase in the demand for tea, even while it impoverishes the Persian and Persia, by rendering the opium-eater and smoker very rapidly unfit for work. It is an undoubted fact that opium has a far worse, and more rapid, effect on the Persian than on the Osmanli, the Indian or the Chinaman. This is doubtless due, mainly, to the very impure nature of the drug, which is home manufactured and much adulterated. The opium habit is generally contracted in the season of fasting, the *Ramzan*, when it is taken as a medicine. Once begun, the Persian can never give it up. He goes from bad to worse, and, as custom in Persia has always permitted the wine cup, despite the canons of the Koran, whilst there are many popular vices as well, the opium-eater becomes a wreck in two or three years, and is generally dead in five or six.

As I have said above, Southern Persia is a poor country, and the people, as a rule, are without initiative. At the same time, under a better system of provincial government, it would not be impossible for them to improve their condition. However, notwithstanding the proverty of the land and the people, and in spite of the faulty methods of revenue administration, improvement in trade with India is not only possible, but is not too difficult of achievement, provided the Persian is given a fair chance in his own country.

Money is now squandered on all sorts of silver horse trappings and similar finery, which would be spent in other and more profitable ways, were there openings for spending it. Let us make these openings by placing the products of India at the doors of the people. They do not know what India can produce, and for the most part their knowledge of India is confined to the one word, Bombay, and their knowledge of even this city and its marts is extremely limited. It is not unreasonable to hope that the advent of the Commercial Mission may help materially to change this state of affairs.

TRADE—

Mr. Maclean has dealt, mainly from the British standpoint, with the trade of every part of Persia but the South-East. This it is my duty to attend to, more especially from the point of view of the Indian Commercial man. It would merely be a truism to say that the trade of South-Eastern Persia is not in a satisfactory condition as considered from the standpoint of the British Indian trader and manufacturer. For this there are many reasons. The chief

reasons are found in the poverty of the people, the lack of bonded warehouses and proper communications (road, postal and telegraphic), as well as of the safety of goods in transit, which are all important factors in the development of trade.

A considerable hindrance to trade is also caused by the balance of trade being so unduly heavy against Persia. The exports from South Eastern Persia into India, for instance, are too small to set off against imports from India into Persia. Unable to pay for imports by the sale of exports, Persian importers have to do most of their business in cash. Their transactions are thus limited, and they feel seriously the effects of the least disturbance in exchange. At the same time Indian traders fail to get the benefit of the appreciation of the rupee, for they cannot save in Bank-commission on the return of funds, neither can they make any profit by extensive purchases of Persian products in a cheapened market.

Another reason, and a very weighty one, is the apathy of Indian traders. If we except the Shikarpur Mahajans and certain Bombay and Calcutta firms, Indian traders and manufacturers have yet, to all intents and purposes, to discover Persia. So far, they have neglected to investigate and cater for the wants of Persia, and especially have they neglected South-Eastern Persia, which is contiguous to India, nor have they troubled to enquire into its productive possibilities.

Considering the unofficial exactions, to which traders (British Indians to a scarcely less degree than Persians) are exposed at the hands of provincial rulers, the indolent conservativeness of Mahommedan traders, the state of Persian Commercial law, *e.g.*, the unsatisfactory condition in which the creditor stands in Persia, and the new Customs Tariff, which doubles the price of what is practically a necessity, like tea, not to mention the new Règlement with its unpractical and in many cases, unjust clauses, I am surprised that matters, commercially speaking, are not worse than they are.

The difficulties arising from the Customs Tariff are capable of being overcome, whilst those due to the primitive condition of the law and to the unbusiness-like habits of the people have, I consider, been somewhat exaggerated. Let the Indian or Anglo-Indian manufacturer set himself to study, to the mutual advantage of India and Persia, the promising market that lies at his door. This market is now to a great extent monopolised by Russian manufacturers, in the North at all events. But these manufacturers cannot live or work unsupported. They have to pay much more for their transport to the confines of Persia, and for their labour than Indian manufacturers, hence they can only compete with Indian trade so long as their losses are made good to them by Government subsidies. How long can this go on? Surely not for ever, especially if England and India meet Russia with her own weapons!

A great advantage possessed by the Russian manufacturers is that they cater for a population in Persia, whose wants resemble the wants of a great part of the population of Russia. If the Indian manufacturer does not want to be handicapped very heavily in the struggle with the Russian, he must set himself to supply exactly what the Persians want. Unless he can do this, it is of little use evolving schemes for the improvement of communications, for the betterment of the condition of the Persian people, and for the creation of political and legal safeguards for merchants.

Another point which the Indian manufacturer, catering for the Persian market, must attend to is the marking of goods, plainly, in the Persian character, and the printing of Catalogues and Price Lists in the language of the country. Prices ought to be in rupees at the factory and c. i. f. Bander Abbas and Bushire. All correspondence must also be conducted in Persian.

Advantage might be taken of the presence in India of certain Persian youths of good family, who are being educated at the M. A.-O. College, and of Parsee youths, who, I hear, are to be sent to Bombay, to be educated (under Sir Dinshaw Petit's scheme), to introduce industrial India to Persia. These young men might be taken on tour in the winter months to the great modern manufacturing centres, and shown everything. The benefits arising from these easily arranged tours would be considerable, politically as well as commercially.

STATISTICS—

In order to get an idea of the future possibilities in the growth of trade, we may examine trade statistics of the past. Unfortunately, reliable figures cannot be had, except in the Custom's reports for comparatively recent years. However much the new Customs tariff may be criticised, it must be admitted that since its introduction the compilation of statistics of Persian trade no longer means guess work of the wildest, and that such figures may now be regarded as being reasonably accurate.

The figures for the year 1903 are the first issued since the reform in the reorganization and administration of the Imperial Persian Customs Department.

These figures are not absolutely accurate, but they are not very far from the truth. They declare the total trade of Persia, in that year, to have been over £8,000,000, composed of over £5,000,000 Imports and £3,000,000 Exports. Other reliable information makes it fairly evident that these figures rather under-estimated the commerce of Persia, and shows that the total imports and exports averaged £9,000,000 annually. Of this trade. £4,000,000 were, roughly, with Russia, £3,000,000 with the British Empire, and £2,000,000 with other countries :—so much for the figures for the year 1902-1903.

The official statistics for the year ending March 20th, 1904, are less satisfactory, though they show a considerable increase in the total trade of Persia. The total for the year in question is placed (exchange being taken at 60 krs. to the £ stg.) at £10,661,695, Imports being £6,415,609 and Exports £4,246,086. Russian trade shows a very great increase, being reckoned at £5,668,340. British trade shows, on the other hand, a falling off, and amounts now to only £2,490,009. The interests of Russia and of the British Empire still, however, preponderate enormously.

When it is considered that Russia trades in particular with the northern portion of Persia, which is undoubtedly richer and more prosperous than the south, that Persia is her next-door neighbour, that the trade has not only been assiduously nourished but spoonfed, and that we have to work against a tariff which has been especially planned to kill our trade and foster that of Russia, the figures are not so discouraging.

Improvement could be made by an expansion of existing trade, the opening out of new connections in parts of Persia, which are at present hardly touched, and by beating Russia, where we come into competition, by her own methods, if necessary, *e.g.*, by special rates for freight, subsidies and rebates. It must be borne in mind that the proportion of our trade which would need this bolstering would be very small in proportion to our entire trade, whereas with Russia the reverse is the case.

The Customs statistics, which showed the total of Persian trade to have been over £8,000,000 in 1903, showed also the trade of Bander Abbas, the port of South-East Persia, to have been £587,777. Here the United Kingdom and India supplied 71 per cent. of the imports and took 58 per cent. of the exports. The imports of Indian goods into the port showed a reduction in the same year, falling from £187,277 in 1902 to £171,096; the import trade from the United Kingdom also fell off, but the total trade of Persian Gulf ports showed an increase. Imports into Bander Abbas during 1904, from the United Kingdom and India collectively showed a decrease of £72,593, and exports a combined increase of £19,289, as compared with the previous year. The increase in exports was due entirely to India. At Bushire, comparing the year 1903 with 1902, imports from the United Kingdom showed a decrease of £93,094, whilst imports from India improved by £55,618. In the same period exports from Bushire to the United Kingdom fell of by £38,957, whilst exports to India improved by £6,724. In the year 1904 imports from the United Kingdom into Bushire decreased by £75,639, as compared with 1903, and imports from India were lower by £113,309. Both the United Kingdom and India took more from Bushire than in the previous year, the United Kingdom showing an increase of £20,958 and India an increase of £30,979 in exports.

The decrease in Indian trade at Bander Abbas is attributable, in the main, to the diversion of Indian tea shipments intended for Northern Persia and

Russian Turkistan to the Russian port of Batoum. These used to pass through Yezd by way of Bander Abbas. This diversion was due to the desire to avoid the heavy import duties on goods going into Russian territory through Persia, and to the fact that sea transit and shorter land transit combined to render the importation of tea into Transcaspian Provinces and Nothern Persia an easier matter by this route than by the old route *viâ* Bander Abbas and Yezd.

FLUCTUATIONS IN TRADE—

In Persia, as in India, the yearly fluctuations of trade depend chiefly on meteorological conditions, and on the consequent economic position of the people. In years of scanty rainfall and failing crops the people, whose "margin of solvency" is even smaller than that of similar classes in India (owing to their wants being greater and to the uncertainty of the pecuniary demands that may be made on them), have perforce to reduce expenditure to its lowest limits, contenting themselves with the bare necessities of life. This economy has an immediate effect on trade, as, for instance, during 1900 and 1901, when the winter rains, on which the life of Persia depends, practically failed. There was then a consequent and immediate shrinkage of the already too scanty cultivation all through Southern Persia, which region has not yet recovered from the effects of the drought, and a corresponding shrinkage in Persian trade. These fluctuations, which are often due to purely internal and local causes, are very violent, and render comparison between the trade of the country, in any two years, of small value. Before any really valuable conclusions can be drawn, figures concerning the trade of Persia must be studied over extended periods of time, and with them the meteorological records.

Another fruitful cause of extraordinary fluctuations is when markets are suddenly depleted of stocks, owing to unforeseen orders from inland—a very easy matter in a country like Persia, where communication between places is a matter of weeks, and sometimes of months. It must be remembered, too, that forethought is not a strong point amongst Persian traders, and that these depletions are not uncommon. Stocks as a consequence have to be replenished, and there is a sudden increase in trade.

Such statistical enquiries are, however, not very easy in Persia, where, before the establishment of the Belgians in the Customs Department, accounts were very loosely kept by the Customs farmers, whilst matters were further complicated by false declarations and by systematic frauds. Further, no central organization or bureau existed, from which dependable information could be procured. The task will be simplified in the future however, for the Customs authorities now issue carefully compiled and elaborate statistical reports. As duties are no longer levied *ad valorem*, but according to a very complicated system of weighment, these figures will, of course, be more valuable for quantities than for values. At the same time it must be acknowledged, with gratitude, that the administration are endeavouring to ensure, as far as careful valuation can, accuracy in this latter respect.

Judging from reliable critical estimates, and from the figures given in consular reports, it is evident that the trade of Persia, alike in imports and exports, has increased, within the last few years, by from 15 to 20 per cent. This increase has, however, been for the most part in the north of the country and in Russo-Persian trade. British trade has also increased within the last few years, but to only a very small extent. The average increase has not been in proportion to the increased trade of Russia, while the figures for 1903-1904 show a decrease, as compared with the figures for 1902-1903.

Indian trade, so far as can be gathered from figures obtained at the Gulf ports, has fluctuated, but has, on the whole, advanced somewhat, though not much. This will be seen by a reference to the statistics at the end of this report.

There is so far as I have been able to discover, little or no reason for this stagnation. It is true that the new Customs Tariff, to which England had to submit, was very carefully drawn up by Russia to ensure practically free entry for her own goods and the imposition of unfairly high duties on goods imported from the British Empire. Nevertheless, now that it has been accepted, no more unannounced changes or penal discriminatory duties are possible, and calculations can be based accordingly.

China, Indian, and any other teas imported through Ashkabad pay equal duties with teas imported through Bander Abbas or Bushire. The same is true of cotton materials, sugar or anything else, whilst duties are not high on goods produced in common by the two countries. Sugar comprises one-half of the Russian exports to Persia. The consumption of sugar in Persia is enormous, but she produces none herself. An attempt was made to manufacture sugar from beet in Persia, but it failed. A Belgian sugar factory was established near Tehran, but it has virtually had to be closed. The reasons for this, it is reported, are that the Mullahs condemned the cultivation of beet-root, because they considered the crop was grown to the detriment of cereals, while the factory was too large for local supplies to keep it fed with raw material. Russia is, however, now about to claim certain concessions for the growing of beet-root and the manufacture of sugar in Persia, having found that, over a great portion of Persia, Russian sugar is unsaleable, and she realizes that the consumption of sugar has greatly increased, and that it is certain to increase still more.

It may be impossible for Indian sugar to compete in the North with Russian sugar, which, although wanting in sweetening properties, has the advantages of being bounty fed as well as that of short and easy carriage, and is therefore very cheap.

There is no apparent reason, however, provided favourable *through-rates* can be secured and a careful study is made of the national taste, and provided, also, that, by good management, economical working is secured, and the crippling burden of "General Charges" kept within reason, why Indian sugar, both crystal and loaf, should not compete on favourable terms with, and wrest the market from, the French, Egyptian, Austrian and Belgian sugars, which flood the whole of Southern Persia, even as far north as Hamadan, Ispahan and Yezd.

Indian sugar of a good class is now unknown on the Persian market. This is not astonishing, seeing that India has had till recently to conduct a disastrous war with bounty-fed sugar from outside. Thanks, however, to reasonable and far-sighted legislation, Indian sugar has not succumbed, and is once more on its feet. In a very short time India ought to be sending her sugar abroad. It has greater sweetening power and purity than any of the sugars now on the market in Persia. If it is packed so as to prevent sweating and melting during transit, the Indian manufacturer, by dealing directly with the Persian merchant and others, and thus saving the middleman's profits, ought to be able to make the South-Eastern Persian market his own.

In tea the trade can, I am sure, be largely developed, by a careful study of requirements of the country, by shipping a moderately priced and light liquored article. The Persian taste has been educated to appreciate light liquored teas only.

In yarns and twists India holds a very firm position, but this position she might improve still more if she could manufacture some finer grades.

In the same way India might be able to get in with more cotton goods and prints than she now does, and secure almost a monopoly in woollens.

As I have said before, to make headway, Indian manufacturers must set to work carefully to study the requirements of the country, and, working economically, to meet them and compete with the Russian assisted trader, who operates, it must be remembered, under conditions which in addition to being unnatural, are at present, uncertain, and who is handicapped in Southern Persia by land carriage from the north, etc.

Some means must be arrived at by which the Persian trader, and more particularly the small trader, can be assisted in the matter of Customs dues, which are heavy and which must be paid in cash. The Banque d'Escompte de Perse assists, in Tehran and Meshed, the importer of goods from Russia. Depôts of reserve stocks must be established at distributing centres, which are on the telegraph line, in order to supply, without loss of time, merchants or markets threatened with depletion of stocks.

The Shipping Companies and Railways must do their share, by granting special and reduced through rates, a thing they can well afford, for goods intended

for Bander Abbas and Bushire, as is now done for goods for carriage over the Quetta-Nushki route to Seistan. Government must do its part, by bringing about a great improvement in the port of Bander Abbas, and inducing the Persian Government either to construct a good caravan road to Bam, over which wheeled traffic would ply, or to grant a concession, as in the case of the Bakhtiari road (Lynch road) to some English firm. What this would mean to the trade of Persia it is difficult to gauge, but it is certain that not only would it give a great impetus to import trade, but also to exports. I will deal with this subject at length under "Communications."

A little rational irrigation in the plains of Bam-Narmashir, Jiruft and Rudbar, coupled with the above, would mean a golden harvest for the Shah. We must expect obstruction from Russia; it is not to her interests that Persia should develop or become rich and independent, and doubtless she will do her best to keep out, or squeeze out, British trade and prevent the growth of British influence. As will be gathered from the facts I have collated in the section headed "RUSSIAN COMPETITION," Persia's great northern neighbour is sparing neither thought nor energy in carrying out the programme she has drawn up.

In the north she is all powerful, and her proximity enables her to exert pressure on Tehran. Her Consuls in some cases virtually rule Persian provinces, and neither the Court nor the people find cause for objection, for are there not the Cossacks over the border and the Railway tracks leading up to Moscow and St. Petersberg with the immediate prospect of Motor Cars running direct to Tehran, for which a concession has been granted to Russia? In the south, Russian Consulates and Agencies are being opened, the Consular Officers being increasingly active and interfering.

There is small doubt but that many of the Customs Officers keep Russian Officials and Merchants *au fait* with Persian trade, facts and fancies, and act as agents for the spread of Russian Trade. In brief, the Belgians, their neutrality notwithstanding, are naturally more in sympathy with Russia, on whom their employment depends, than with the British, from whom they neither expect nor fear anything, and by whom they are regarded with some suspicion for this reason.

Fortunately, however for us, the present heads of the Indian Government, following the lead of the Viceroy, have their eyes fixed on the countries beyond the Indian Frontier. We too, may, be permitted to find some comfort in Lord Lansdowne's assurance that there is a limit beyond which Britain will not tolerate foreign interference in her legitimate sphere of influence in Persia, and consequently to look forward to the future with hope.

Apart from the matter of India's exports to Persia, which I have just touched upon lightly, there is a question of Persia's exports to be considered.

Three-fourths or more of these are raw produce, vegetable and animal, the remaining fourth consisting of a small quantity of manufactured leather, which is exported mostly into Russia, for the use of the Mahommedan population there, to Afghanistan and Arabia, also of various textiles of silk and wool, chiefly carpets.

The main trend of the export trade is to Russia, some of whose border districts depend on the Trans-frontier trade for their very food. There is, however, a fair export trade to India, but this includes much merchandise intended for the United Kingdom and for Continental ports, the precise details of which it is impossible to arrive at.

I give the totals for several years, together with the value of the pearls exported in each year from Bahrein and Lingah, which for our purpose may be subtracted from the total:—

YEAR.	Total. R	Pearls. R	
1899-1900	82,79,332	34,81,000	By Sea.
1902-1903	64,83,854	19,51,850	By Sea.
1903-1904	43,74,603	10,82,578	By Sea.
1902-1903	1,86,510	...	Overland route, Seistan and Quetta.
1903-1904	3,55,011	...	Overland route, Seistan and Quetta.

Of the chief Persian exports about one-half of the total is of vegetable products, and are capable of great development. These comprise dried fruit, raw cotton, opium, rice, gums and dyeing materials.

Animal products, raw, one-fourth of the total, comprising silk, cocoons skins, pelts, intestines, wool and pearls.

The remaining one-fourth, which comprises manufactured articles, consists mainly of carpets, with a very small quantity of leather goods.

The greater part of the exported dried fruit, raw cotton, wool, hides, pelts and rice, together with much of the raw silk, gums and dyeing materials, goes to Russia, five-sixths of whose purchases from Persia consist of raw or agricultural products.

The British Empire takes the major part of the remaining raw produce, with the exception of animal intestines, which go chiefly to Germany and the the United States, by way of Constantinople and Russia. Opium goes mostly to China, and cocoon silk to France and Italy.

The Persian carpets, by far the best of which are made in Kerman, are chiefly exported to India, the United Kingdom, Turkey, Europe and America; cotton, silk and woollen tissues, to India, Afghanistan and Turkey; leather and leather goods to Russian Turkistan.

There are amongst these raw products several articles, the importation of which India might increase with advantage to her rising industries. Amongst these are wool, cotton, pistachios, almonds, raisins, gum tragacanth and various dyeing materials. None of the hides that I have seen would repay the trouble and expense of importing them *inland* into India.

Nearly all the raw cotton exported goes to Russia, who has taken special steps for the encouragement of this trade. All the cotton sent from the Oases in Rafsinjan and Khorasan is of a very short staple and hardly worth the attention of Indian weavers and spinners. I fear Sirjan cotton is also too short in staple, but this is grown only in quantities sufficient to supply the local demand at present.

There remain gums and dyeing materials. It would be well worth developing a trade in these, if only for the reason that trade makes trade and that an extension of purchases from Persia by India would, other things being attended to, mean an extension of purchases from India.

ESTABLISHMENT OF MILLS OR FACTORIES—

It is hopeless for any Indian or English manufacturer to think of establishing works in Persia at present. If he embarks on such an enterprise, he will but add another item to the long list of industrial ventures that have failed in that land. The difficulties that stand in the way of such enterprises are at present too great. There is first the Government. No foreigner is allowed to own land or house in Persia, except under very stringent rules, and if he becomes a Persian landholder, he must, as a rule, first become a Persian subject. If he becomes a Persian subject, he must expect continually to be "squeezed." Then, there is the cost of transporting machinery, which is prohibitive, and at present no heavy machinery could be got up at all. Labour, too, in Persia while fairly cheap (though dearer than Indian) is inefficient and undisciplined to a degree hard to conceive.

Lastly, any factory setting up would have to be on a small scale, only large enough to use local supplies, for once you have to carry raw material any distance the present cost of transport renders it prohibitive. This means hopelessly expensive working, as having small factories scattered all over the country would make the cost and task of supervision prohibitive. A good road *viâ* Bam to Kerman, etc., fit for wheeled traffic would change all this very soon.

TRADE METHODS—

These differ in various parts of Persia, and new methods, of a nature not satisfactory to British manufacturers and merchants, are being

introduced by the State-assisted Russian traders, through, to some extent, the Banque d' Escompte, which is a branch of or at any rate closely connected with the Russian State Bank. These will be considered in their proper places, under the head of "Russian Competition."

So far as Southern Persia and the Indian manufacturers are concerned, the bulk of the import trade is conducted on the basis of "Cash against documents." This trade is almost entirely in the hands of Hindus and Parsis,—very few Moslem traders, except at Bushire, doing import and export business of any importance. The long credit system, so much advertised and feared by importers and manufacturers alike, hardly affects the wholesale import trade.

Of course the Persian's ignorance of business methods has some influence on affairs. This cannot but be the case when a man considers that a document drawn at 90 days' sight ought to carry on for 180, and when he also regards any attempt to charge interest for the excess time in the light of an imposition.

In the Kerman region the large importers sell to retail dealers, or more properly middlemen, who, in turn, sell to the small retail dealers, mostly Parsis and Persians, goods being paid for half in cash, and credit being given for half, at a rate of interest from 24 per cent. to 120 per cent., credit being allowed, as a rule, for from four to ten months.

These retail dealers, some of whom own shops in the chief towns, sell their goods in small quantities to petty dealers or pedlars, who in turn sell in out-lying villages and occasionally peddle their goods to Nomads. Their methods are very like those of their fellows in other parts of the world. Sales are, as a rule, for cash, though sometimes credit is given for a month to approved customers, this credit being often turned into a running account, the traders collecting a portion of the whole of the amount at the end of the month. Payments to village traders are sometimes made in kind, and barter is common. The Nomads, as a rule, buy what they want in biggish lots in the spring and early autumn.

Commercial customs in Central Persia are somewhat different from those obtaining in Kerman and the South-Eastern region. Sales in Yezd and Ispahan are made, when wholesale, on the basis of a fixed price, with long credits, which are shortened or lengthened according as the prices of commodities rise or fall. In all sale contracts provision is generally made for payment of the debt at the end of about three months, and compound interest, at the rate of 1 per cent. per month, is allowed to the purchaser on the unexpired period of the credit given. These payments are sometimes made in instalments, a portion of the debt being cleared off at regular periods, generally monthly. In this case the affair resolves itself into one of a running account.

To give an example of how the method works:—Tea is selling at a fixed price of krs. 50 per man. "A," buys tea when credit is 24 months. He pays his debt at the end of the stipulated three months. He gets discount for 21 months, calculated at the rate of 1 per cent. per month compound interest. Tea increases in price before "A" makes his next purchase. He has now to buy at the rate of krs. 50 per man at a credit of 12 months. He pays at the end of three months and gets discount at the rate of 1 per cent. per month for nine months. He again buys tea when it is very much reduced in price, and is now selling at krs. 50 per man with 36 months credit. As before, he pays his debt at the end of three months. He now gets discount at the rate of 1 per cent. per month for 33 months. It is seen from this that credit is in reality a discount, and the lengthening or shortening of credits only represents the change in price. This method of doing business also obtains in Tehran, Tabriz and Shiraz, though in a somewhat less pronounced manner, in as much as fixed prices are frequently changed.

The great drawback to trade, apart, of course, from the state of the country and communications, is the absence, or, rather, the primitive state, of commercial law in Persia. For the term law may be read custom, assisted by the Koran and complicated by bribery and corruption. The payment of accepted bills can not be enforced, and bankruptcies, many of them fraudulent, are common amongst the smaller fry of traders, who on very slight provocation take refuge in the Sanctuaries or refuges called *Basts*, which abound in the country. Such bank-

ruptcies are more rare amongst the bigger merchants, who are made to pay very heavily for the privilege of taking *Bast* by the mullahs in charge, and *Bast* is, at best, little better than prison. However, as import and export business is conducted, so far as India is concerned, mainly on a cash basis, the Indian manufacturer is not affected by this custom.

BANKS AND BANKING—

There are in Persia two European Banks. The first is the Imperial Bank of Persia, an English concern. The other is the Banque de Prêts de Perse, now known as the Banque d'Escompte et des Prêts, which is connected with the Russian State Bank, and managed by a Russian Government Official. The one is a mercantile firm, working as a State Bank, under charter from the Shah, but dependent for its existence, more or less, on its profits, made in the usual fashion. The other is a department of the Russian Government rather than a Bank. Both of these Banks have their Head-Quarters at Tehran.

The Imperial Bank of Persia, represented in India by the National Bank, has branches at Tabriz, Kisht, Meshed, Kermanshah, Ispahan, Nasratabad (Seistan), Yezd, Shiraz, Kerman and Bushire, and native agencies at Hamadan and Kashan. There ought also to be a branch at Bander Abbas, which would be advantageous, alike to the Imperial Bank and to British trade. A small branch might also be opened at Bam; this branch office need not be under an expensive European Manager, but under the management of a tried and trusty Persian, Indian or Armenian subordinate. Bam is a place with a future; already its inhabitants are rich, richer than those of any other district in the Kerman Province.

The Russian Bank has branches at Kisht, Meshed and Tabriz, and there is talk of branches at Kerman, Bushire and Bander Abbas.

Besides these two banks there are many money-lenders. The majority of these, in the South-East, are Shikarpore Hindus. Their methods are those of their brothers in India, but the rate of interest, charged for obligations, in Persia, is higher. In parts the Armenians to some extent take the place of the Hindus, both as traders and money-lenders. In every town there are many Mahommedan Shroffs, who, although the Koran forbids the Moslem to lend money on interest, find a way out of the difficulty, by lending the money free of interest, but charging, at the same time, a special and high premium for the favour of the loan. The Parsi element is now coming to the fore as traders.

The mortgaging of landed property is common, but the holders of the deeds are, as a rule, very glad to assist their debtors to resume possession, especially when these debtors are the heirs of a dead mortgager. Mahommedans think that property, acquired under such circumstances, carries with it a specially deep curse.

Much business is done by means of drafts and documents, but banking has not yet taken a firm foothold in Persia; firm for firm there is less banking business done in Persia in six months than in India in one. Persians generally do not understand the benefits of a Bank account. They are bewildered by the calculation of rates of exchange, of discount and interest. Content to eat, sleep and be merry after their own fashion, as long as they can do so without feeling the pinch of want, they are glad to see the Hindu, Armenian or Parsi conduct the trade of the country. Amongst such people, centuries behind Europe in business habits, banking must be a difficult business and of slow growth.

Persian traders generally keep running accounts with Persian or Hindu Shroffs, who give them advances on current accounts, and their example is followed often by importers, who find it convenient and economical in the matter of exchange and discounts. There seems to be no opening for an exchange bank, or, rather, little hope of its success; existing banks can more than meet the demands of the country, and it is possible that a considerable expansion of business might result if the Imperial Bank of Persia could see its way to be somewhat more accommodating in its methods of transacting business.

Persia is a silver country, and its monetary unit is the Kran, a silver coin, which is supposed to weigh a miskal (71·04 grains troy) and to be composed of 100 parts of copper to 90 parts silver.

There are two sorts of money current—old and new. The old, which is now going out of use even in the south, is the coin which was hand-struck at several provincial mints up to 1877. The new money is the machine-minted coinage since that year. In neither of these has the legal standard of silver been adhered to by the mint masters. The old coins contain on an average $1\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. less silver than they are supposed to, and the new is debased to the extent of from $1\frac{3}{4}$ to 2 per cent.

Recently a nickel coinage consisting, of *one* shahi and *two* shahi tokens (one Kran contains 20 shahis), has been minted in Belgium for the Shah, and all copper coins withdrawn. This is a move in the right direction, as the value of the nickel coin does not fluctuate, whereas that of the copper one did. The silver coinage nominally consists of $\frac{1}{4}$, $\frac{1}{2}$, 1, 2 and 5 Kran pieces, but for all practical purposes 1 and 2 Kran pieces constitute the currency, the latter being chiefly in use. The bulk of the coinage is minted in Belgium and Persia, but the few 5 Kran pieces that are in circulation have been minted in Russia.

The Persian mint issues at various times gold coins of various values, from 5 krans up to 10 Tomans (1 Toman is equivalent to 10 krans or 200 shahis). These coins are not legal tender, there being no recognized parity between them and the silver coinage, and, though they may be bought and sold in some bazaars, mostly at a premium, the Imperial Bank refuses to transact business in them, the fluctuations in their value being considerable and arbitrary.

The Imperial Bank issues notes of Tomans 1, 2, 3, 5, 10, 20, 50, 100, etc., and these are legal tender. This Bank, which is the only institution in Persia, with a legal right to issue notes, has a circulation exceeding in value £500,000 sterling. Owing to the efforts of the Banque d'Escompte as stated above, and to the extreme costliness, slowness and insecurity of transport over Persian roads, and for other reasons the Bank has now been compelled to limit the encashment of notes to their own circles, except, of course, for small sums, or at a very heavy discount to travellers.

The average sterling rate of exchange, at 3 months' date, is in the South, where imports always exceed exports, generally higher than the Tehran rate. At Tehran it varied in the 7 years ending 1903 from 51·20 Krans to 55·70 Krans to the £ sterling, having stood highest in the last two years To-day, owing to the commercial crisis in Russia and to the consequent falling off in exports from Persia, exchange stands at 64 Krans to the £ sterling at 3 months' date. The rates in Ispahan and Yezd are, as a rule, higher than those obtaining in Tehran, from a half to one per cent, in Shiraz from one to one-and-a-half per cent., and in Bushire and Bander Abbas from one-and-a-half to two per cent. Just at the end of 1904 and the beginning of 1905 the rates in the North were, owing to the cessation of rouble exchange, higher than in the South, a most unusual state of affairs.

The following have been the fluctuations in foreign exchange during the year March 1904 to February 1905 :—

Months.	Average rate during month.	Average rate during month.	Months.	Average rate during month.	Average rate during month.
	Krans per R100.	Krans per £ stg. demand.		Krans per R100.	Krans per £ stg. demand.
March 1904 . .	387·25	56·25	September 1904 . .	396	59
April „ . .	388·50	57·15	October „ . .	396	59
May „ . .	389·15	57·40	November „ . .	399	59·80
June „ . .	392·8	58·55	December „ . .	413·60	61·25
July „ . .	396	59	January 1905 . .	423·25	62·65
August „ . .	396	59	February „ . .	430	64·25

AGRICULTURAL BANKS—

His Imperial Highness the Shoa-us-Sultaneh, second son of the Shah, and Governor-General of the Province of Fars, seemed keenly interested in what he had apparently heard of Agricultural Banks in India, and expressed himself most desirous of seeing similar Banks inaugurated in Persia. He was evidently keenly alive to the necessity of helping cultivators to introduce improved methods of farming by the importation of up-to-date agricultural implements, etc., and realized that it was hopeless to attempt any such improvement under existing circumstances.

RUSSIAN COMPETITION—

The competion offered by the State-assisted Russian trader to the British and British Indian trader is serious. The Russian Government has for years been working at the Persian problem in its own way, and one of the axioms adopted by Russia is the absolute identity of trade and politics. She has taken special steps to encourage the importation of her manufactures into Persia; Russian trade has all the advantages that result from every form of State aid.

It is, according to the ideas worked to their utmost capacity by M. Witte, subsidised in a way that astonishes all the world. The raw produce for the mills and factories, the very food-stuffs for the operatives, but not for the mere peasant or townsman, are admitted into Russia from certain regions at specially low rates, whilst a formidable Customs tariff is opposed to the importation of any competing manufactures. Russian made goods are granted special rates over Government railways and for carriage by Russian ships, whose owners receive heavy bounties. In addition to this, the Russian manufacturer, when he is not exporting to a free trade country, is given rebates, equivalent to the Customs dues he has to pay. The Russian State Bank assists, at rates impossible to an ordinary mercantile Bank, Persian traders exporting merchandise into or buying goods from Russia.

In addition to the above, the fact must be kept in mind that part of the Russian Asiatic Frontier marches with that of Persia for the whole of its northern length, and that the people on both sides of the Frontier are identical from a trade point of view. This enables the traders from both countries to cater over a more extended areas, and avoid having to specialize for one country or the other.

The part of Persia contiguous to Russia is much richer naturally and much more developed than the south. It is more thickly inhabited, and the people are more advanced than those of the south. The trade routes in the north of Persia are shorter, and in every way better, than those in the south. Lines of railway run down to and touch the Persian Frontier, connecting the Caravan routes with the manufacturing centres of Russia. Now we are to have a Motor Car service for the carriage of merchandise running into Persia from Russia; her roads are made, a concession has been granted, and the scheme now merely awaits completion. There are no breaks in the telegraph system, nor any paucity of lines. Depleted markets can thus be quickly replenished from Russia. Russian importers can fill orders from the northern centres in under three months from date of ordering, whereas it takes an Indian or English importer at least from six to eight months to do the same, a serious consideration, as it not only means capital being locked up for double the period, but very often loss of market. The time occupied in complying with orders even in Southern markets is long enough to enable the Russians, who by favour of their Bank keep reserve stocks at Tehran and Meshed, etc., to get the cream of even such markets as Kerman, Shiraz, after a depletion of local stocks has taken place. Consequently, as every merchant and manufacturer knows, the first in the market scores, and Russian traders reap their reward.

With all these advantages it is not astonishing that the Russian trader is in a position to compete with the British and Indian manufacturer in all the markets of Persia north of Kirmanshah, Ispahan and Yezd, and even to make a very strong bid for the Southern markets.

Leaving on one side such matters as the amounts of the various subsidies given to manufacturers in Russia, and the special rates accorded to their goods

over the State railways to the Frontier stations, I will proceed to detail some of the methods pursued in Persia for the fostering of Russian trade.

In the first place, Russian merchants and manufacturers give their Persian clients a heavy discount, ranging, as far as textiles are concerned, from 6 per cent. to 10 per cent. The Russian Bank, which is in a position to be careless of such details as profit making, also comes to the assistance of the Persian customer. It will sell him drafts, or will discount documents for him, at rates far below those obtaining in the open market. It will also buy certain lines of goods (chiefly cottons) for, and deliver them to, clients at rates with which regular traders, who have to live by their trading, cannot compete.

It also helps, in other minor ways, traders who purchase in the Russian market. For instance, under the new Customs regulations, duties and all dues must be paid within a very limited time; there is no bonded warehouse system in existence, and the administration does not allow credit, as the old Customs farmers used to. This imposes much inconvenience, and sometimes hardship, upon importers, and particularly upon the smaller men, who cannot always lay their hands at a moment's notice upon sufficient cash to clear their goods.

The Russian Bank here comes to their assistance, provided that the goods come from Russia. It takes up the invoices and clears the goods, as well as warehousing them, only charging 2 per cent. commission. The Bank, in return, receives a bond, or note of hand, generally dated at six months, for the amount due, on which a low rate of interest, 6 per cent. to 8 per cent. is charged, clients being given a favourable option for earlier payment and the advantage of a fictitious low rate of exchange for the liquidation of their debts.

If a consignment brought out by a client is a fairly large one, and more than he wishes to take delivery of at once, the Bank permits him to take delivery in part, warehousing the rest for him at a reasonable charge. When the customer has sold his first lot, and made his first turn over, he pays his dues to the Bank, takes out the rest of his goods, and forwards a fresh indent to Russia. This may account for no steps having been taken by the Customs authorities to fulfil their obligations with regard to the building of bonded warehouses, as the existence of such would, to a certain extent, negative this Russian advantage.

Some of the methods pursued by the Russian Bank in its efforts to attract the trade, confidence and affection of the Persians, such as the keeping of price lists and samples, the acceptance and filling of orders, the clearing and warehousing of goods, are, though removed from ordinary banking business, legitimate enough, and might be imitated with advantage by the Imperial Bank of Persia. There are other methods, however, which are, or have been, pursued by the Russians in their efforts to hamper British trade, and to bring the British Bank into difficulties and discredit, which can hardly be called legitimate, *vide* my remarks under "Banking."

Russian trade is not only assisted by special railway rates to the Persian frontier, by rebates, by bounties, and by means of the State Bank, in the north, but by the employment of somewhat similar tactics to push Russian trade in the south. In the north and south alike, Russian Consuls are as active as any merchant in pushing the interests of Russian trade; and the introduction into South-Eastern Persia by the Russians of methods of trade finance that have hurt us seriously in the west and north cannot but be viewed with uneasiness. Unless the British and Indian Governments see fit, as already stated, to do something for the fostering of our trade in Persia, British interests may suffer in the future more than they have done in the past.

The Russian Steam Navigation Company, trading from Odessa to the Gulf ports, is given an annual subsidy, for the carrying of bounty-fed goods, which comes to £4,000 per trip. The Canal Dues are also refunded. Thus the Russian shipper gets an advantage which ought to enable him to put his goods on the market at rates by which he could outbid all competitors. Nevertheless, he is not quite able to do so, though he has succeeded extremely well, specially in the northern provinces, in pushing sugar and certain lines of cotton prints, and Turkey reds, which latter the Persians seem to think are of better quality than English goods of the same class.

Facts worth noting are that the Russian manufacturer, like the German, is willing to fill small orders, and to make new patterns if asked to. Through his Consuls, and through a host of keen Armenian Trade Agents, men who know Persian as well as they know their own mother tongue, who live like and move freely amongst Persians, and who also often conform to the religion of Islam, the Russian manufacturer keeps an observant eye on the ever-changing demands of fashion. He does not consider that because a pattern or colour was in great request a century back it must be so to-day; he foresees new demands and meets them: in a word, he does, not force what he has down the throats of his customer, but supplies what is wanted.

The competition offered to the British and British Indian trader by the carefully nursed Russian ought not, however, to frigten us, even though there are years when Customs statistics indicate considerable trade victories for Russia. There is a limit to all things, and it is certain that assistance of this wholesale sort cannot go much further. The immense Russian Empire has been living, in a most wasteful fashion, on credit for years past. The nation is steeped in debt, the masses of the people unskilled and unlettered, are in a state of grinding poverty, and are on the verge of revolt.

Russia will find it very difficult indeed to meet her immense and rapidly increasing liabilities, and with her extravagant habits she must soon be forced to retrench in some direction. It is extremely unlikely that she will retrench in the direction of naval and military expenditure. Russia's point of view is still very medieval, and, though she has out-Americaed America in the bolstering of trade, she still looks to the sword to carve out of future years compensation for the evils of the past.

Instead of retrenchment increased expenditure on the army and navy is to be looked for. Some slackening of commercial activity must then follow. Especially is this likely to be the case, since, according to all accounts, the Russian manufacturers are asking for even more help than they now get. The woollen manufacturers are asking to be placed on the same footing as their unduly favoured brethren of the cotton trade. The manufacturers of cotton textile are crying out for increased "drawbacks" and bounties, declaring that the allowances they now receive do not cover the taxes levied on the goods, and food consumed by their operatives.

The Russian Government cannot burn its candle at both ends, and hope to keep it alight indefinitely. Already signs are not wanting to show that the Moujik is feeling the situation oppressive, and small wonder, when Russian products can be bought in Persia cheaper than in the place where they are manufactured.

In the meanwhile, in the struggle with Russian competitors, the British and British Indian traders are entitled to look, and fortunately can look with increasing confidence, for assistance from their Government and Consular representatives.

It appears to me that the present is an opportune moment for Great Britain, in conjunction with India, to retaliate on Russia in kind. Any action taken by us in the way of encouraging trade by subsidies, rebates, etc., will enormously increase the demands upon the already overstrained finances of Russia, and on the overtaxed patience of her people. Whatever we may do in this respect in Persia, must bear far less heavily upon us than similar action on Russia, inasmuch as we would be paying from the dual purse of the United Kingdom and India. The advantages arising from this position are obvious when it comes to a struggle for supremacy.

MATTERS, CONSULAR—

It appears to me that the time has come when we should make diligent efforts to maintain our supremacy in South-Eastern Persia. Russia is showing activity. A Consul has been appointed at Kerman, Commercial Agents (a term synonymous with Consular Agents) have been appointed to various places, and, lastly, a special Persian Agent has been sent to Odessa (as a counter-move to our Mission) to arrange for the furtherance of Russian trade in South-Eastern Persia. In addition to this, it is rumoured that Russian Consuls are to be appointed to Yezd, Shiraz, Bander Abbas and in Persian Baluchistan.

Although it may be considered somewhat *ultra licitum* for me to touch upon consular matters, yet they are so intimately connected with the development of trade that I feel constrained to make certain suggestions and remarks which strike me as likely to be beneficial, not only from a trader's point of view, but from the broader one of the maintenance and development of British influence.

The British Resident in the Gulf has of late had his sphere of control largely increased, and what with the Persian Gulf, the provinces of Fars and Arabistan, and even distant Kermanshah to superintend, it seems impossible for one official, however able, to overlook South-Eastern Persia as well, which, in addition to the province of Kerman, includes Persian Baluchistan, with its difficult questions of frontier policy.

If it is decided upon to pursue an active and forward policy with regard to the development of trade in Southern Persia, it will, of necessity, increase our interests in that quarter, and thereby the importance of the work to be done by the British Official in charge of these provinces, whose staff and powers would, presumably, require to be increased in consequence.

Developments in the Gulf, and in Persia generally, have so enlarged the area under the control of Bushire that one might be justified in assuming that the time has now come for a division of Southern Persia into Eastern and Western Spheres. This would, so far as I can gather, be beneficial to all concerned. In short, I would suggest the advisability of making a Consul-Generalship for Kerman and Persian Baluchistan, bringing Yezd under its jurisdiction, and Bander Abbas, in all matters commercial, as opposed to political, if necessary. Appointments of Vice-Consuls at Yezd and Bam, with Consular Agents at Sirjan, Rafsinjan and Bampore would be advisable. These appointments would not only be beneficial to the interests of trade, but would help to increase British influence.

A move in the right direction has been made by the raising of Bander Abbas to the rank of a Consulate, and placing there an energetic officer, who is keen on the furthering of trade, and whose actions promise, if he is not moved too soon, to recover much lost ground.

From all Consular Officers in Persia an intimate acquaintance with Customs methods, as well as with business, ought to be demanded, and a knowledge of Persian and French ought to be made a *sine quâ non*.

Lastly, I would suggest that all Consular Officers on appointment to Persia be sent to the head-quarters of a Consul-General for at least one year, if not two, in order that they may get initiated into the A.B.C. of their work and the peculiarities of the country, thus obviating the risks of making the many mistakes that now are made owing to their ignorance of Persia and her customs.

In my journey through Persia I have noticed the very great influence that a medical man possesses, and the good that he does; the appointment of a medical officer, with Hospital Assistants, at all head-quarters is desirable, and I would further suggest that the Consular Agents at Sirjan, Rafsinjan and Bampore be selected from the subordinate medical staff, and have dispensaries at these stations.

Traders at Yezd complained bitterly in the past of the want of a Consular Officer on the spot to settle cases and generally look after their interests; the Consul-General at Isfahan, in whose district Yezd is, had not visited the town for ten years. Now the Assistant Superintendent of Telegraphs at Yezd has been vested with the powers of a Vice-Consul. This, however, seems a half measure that promises neither to be beneficial to trade nor to increase British prestige. A Telegraph Officer, who is, as a matter of course, confined to his office, cannot carry out his duties as Vice-Consul, except in a perfunctory manner, especially when, as is the case at Yezd, the salary attached to the post is too small to support a proper office, even if the incumbent has no desire to spend any of it upon himself. It is possible, too, that the higher Persian Officials may not regard such an appointment in a manner calculated to increase its importance and usefulness.

The Government of India, with commendable wisdom, treats its Consular Officers with fairness and liberality in the matter of pay and allowances. It is far otherwise with the Home Foreign office, which adopts a cheese-paring policy towards its servants. They are stinted to an absurd degree in their office allowances, which are not large enough in some cases to enable them to employ two decent clerks, and buy a sufficient supply of stationery. Those who are keen have to do their own clerical work, to the detriment of study, tours, enquiries, etc., in which their real usefulness consists.

In not a few cases it is the unofficial assistance rendered to the officers of the Foreign Office by their brethren under the Indian Government that enables work to be got through. This is an undesirable state of things which the Home Government ought to alter without delay, and which it could alter without too great an expenditure of money.

Speaking in general terms, whilst fully acknowledging that the expansion of our foreign trade must, to a great extent, depend on the energy and forethought of manufacturers and traders, yet, if Government, through its Consular Officials, pursues a policy of *laissez faire* a contingency that might occur through a change of Viceroys, and consequently of Persian policy, we shall be unduly handicapped in our efforts to hold our own against foreign competition.

If Government reserves to itself the right to interfere with trade, as it rightly does, *e.g.*, the Factory Act, etc., it is equally bound, within certain limits, to promote trade by a reasonable expenditure of public funds, and by seeing that its officials do not lose the substance for the shadow, *i.e.*, by ignoring commerce and only attending to politics. Let our motto be—*Wake up India*, and whilst serving ourselves see that we in turn are properly served.

I have had a wide and varied experience of Consuls in many parts of the world. I cannot help placing on record my conviction that the majority loathe the name of trade, and look on anyone seeking information as a person to be discouraged, because he seeks that which is, as a rule, not available.

Commercial intelligence work is usually done in a perfunctory manner, because it generalizes and does not particularize. Exact information regarding markets, prices, freights, etc., the needs and preferences of the people, and the nature of competition likely to be met with, is not as a rule to be had, as it takes trouble to collect.

An example of what consular reports ought to be might be taken from the reports of the United States Foreign Department, containing as they do monographs respecting the conditions abroad of any particular industry; these are compiled from consular reports, specially called for perhaps, but there they are. The Austro-Hungarian reports are also fine samples of organised means for the dissemination of commercial intelligence. They contain clear information as to what classes of goods are required in the various markets, showing the qualities and ruling freights, as well as giving particulars of competition likely to be encountered.

In a word, a foreign Consul is, as a rule, as much concerned in the advancement of his country's trade as he is in its politics, whilst a British Consul usually is not. I fear that commercial men are not blameless in this matter. We have not clamoured for or demanded information which it is our right to expect, hence slackness has been the result.

Reforms imposing more strenuous labours on any department have seldom been introduced by the members of that department, but nearly always by outside pressure. I contend that if we are not properly assisted by our Consular service, it is our duty to see that we are, and then we shall be.

I will here make a few remarks concerning the advancement and support of the trade of Persia with India and the rest of the Empire. If the work of the Mission is to bear adequate fruit, Government will naturally be called upon to share in the task of development, and if the suggestions which I am about

to make be wholly or in part approved of, they will enable a closer touch to be maintained between Persia and the British Empire, and will assist trade considerably, I venture to urge.

I was greatly struck by the consular arrangements at Bushire, where commerce seems to receive very careful attention at the hands of the Resident, and of the Vice-Consul, a Foreign Office Official working under him, who has been specially deputed to attend to trade and commerce, as well as to study and compile statistics.

This is not enough, however.

A Commercial Attaché is needed at Tehran. He ought to be a man of position and standing, one who has had a proper business training, and whose opinion will carry weight, and I would suggest that in *matters commercial only* Consuls and Vice-Consuls should be subordinate to him.

All commercial statistics should be forwarded once a quarter to this official, together with reports on the increase and decrease of particular items of trade (one return would thus be compiled instead of many as at present), together with a commercial report. Quarterly reports and returns (all returns of trade at the ports being compiled from the official returns of the Persian Customs Department) might also be published.

Uniformity in reports would thus be secured. They would no longer be submitted, as at present, to the Home and Indian Governments in various forms and with details that do not always coincide, but would be standardised. Confusion would thus be avoided, and a great amount of useless labour saved.

The cause of any appreciable falling off in the imports or exports of any article of commerce in any particular district coming to the notice of the Consular Officer of that district should be traced, and a special report on the same be submitted, in addition to the general quarterly report, to Head-Quarters at Tehran.

These reports would enable the Commercial Attaché to advise the Commercial Intelligence Branch of the Board of Trade in England, the Bureau of Commerce in India, and the various Chambers of Commerce as to the trade movements and requirements of the country.

In addition to the above, I would suggest that the Commercial Attaché should not only from time to time travel, visiting the various centres of trade with a view to studying the markets in Persia, their peculiarities and requirements, but, when opportunity offers, visit the Indian and Home centres of trade as well. Consuls and Vice-Consuls might also do this with advantage.

A careful study and record of all Foreign trade competition, routes, etc., is essential. Every facility for the answering of enquiries, and for the making of references, would thus be available.

All commercial cases that have to be referred to the Persian Government should be put, through the Commercial Attaché to the British Minister, for representation. The former ought, at the same time, to be kept fully cognizant of all commercial matters passing through the Legation.

Much dissatisfaction is expressed in Persia by the mercantile community at the "Dual Control" that exists (Foreign Office and Indian Foreign Department), and to the fact that, although the Resident and others send up cases to Tehran, they, *being no one's child*, never come to anything, being made subservient, in some cases, to so-called political moves. The general impression, so far as I can gather, was that our commercial interests are not always taken care of by Consuls, and that they receive next to no consideration at Tehran.

The Commercial Attaché's Office, when in proper working order, might have a sample exhibition bureau attached to it, and similar bureaus could be maintained at Consulates. Information should be gathered by Consular Officers by personal enquiries from traders, and by generally showing an interest in the

development of trade with India (the natural source of supply for Southern and Eastern Persia). Unless some such measures be adopted, the natural apathy of Hindu, Parsee or Moslem traders, situated as they are remote from competition, will cause them to allow matters to remain *in statu quo*, and, as a consequence, there will be no improvement in trade.

Before closing my remarks regarding Consular matters, I trust I may be forgiven for making the following suggestions in connection with the Consular service of Persia. Persia, being an undeveloped country, with peculiar customs and a language not easily learnt outside it, it seems to me that it must take considerable time for a Consul to become familiar with his duties and district. This being the case, I would urge that constant changes are undesirable and to be deplored. A marked example of the evil resulting from this policy is offered by Bander Abbas, where there have been four Vice-Consuls in as many years and where lately for a considerable time there was only a Goanese clerk. Compare that district with Kerman, where the late Consul was practically resident for ten years. In the former British prestige was at a very low ebb, in the latter it was the reverse.

In Persia things move slowly, and it takes a man a long time to know his district and to be known in it. Unless he does the one, and is the other, British prestige and influence suffer and, as a consequence, British trade also. I would respectfully suggest that Government ought to make it worth the while of good men to stay at their posts in Persia, and not be constantly seeking transfers to more congenial surroundings.

There are many drawbacks to service in Persia. An official is cut off more or less from the outer world and society. Doctors are few and far between, Dentists there are none, and indeed most of the amenities of civilized life are either unobtainable or difficult of access. In addition, the cost of living is more than double that in India.

In India, society and the conveniences of life are not lacking, and I venture to think that if good men are to leave India and serve in Persia, privileges must be given them to compensate for what they are giving up. We do not want mediocrity in Persia, but the best talent available, as political officers have to pit their brains, not *only* against those of the Persians, but of the representatives of other nations. We in India are to be congratulated on the policy of our present Government, which, from all that I can gather, is letting men see that their services in Persia will not be overlooked. The Government of the United Kingdom is not, however, as I have shown, distinguished by a similar long-sighted generosity towards the Consular Officers subordinate to the Home Foreign Office.

We Britishers are proud, as a rule, of our patriotism, and no truer saying exists than that "We scatter our bones all over the world in the service of our Country." But, coupled with patriotism, all men worthy of the name have ambition; kill the latter and the former wanes, or dies altogether.

There was a past when Persian affairs received little or no attention, either from Government, or the commercial community. There is the present, full of activity. But what of the future. This will, to a great extent, depend upon the attitude assumed by the Chambers of Commerce and the mercantile community.

Four very simple ways of increasing in Persia the knowledge of India and her manufactures have struck me, and I record them for earnest consideration:—

(1) At every Consulate or Consular Agency let there be a show room for samples of Indian goods, with prices and full details clearly marked in Persian, showing place of origin and firm from whom obtainable.

(2) Consular Officers are provided by the Indian Government with funds and with collections of articles intended to be offered as gifts to Persian gentlemen and their servants who have shown

themselves friendly, or who have been of assistance, for the Persians believe that presents sweeten friendship. These collections of presents form the Toshakhana. Let Government purchase annually a percentage of its Toshakhana requirements from India. These purchases should consist of typical products, such as quarter and half chests of tea, done up in fancy boxes, which could be used after being emptied, woollen fabrics in suitable sized *thans*, cotton goods of suitable nature, leather goods of various descriptions, tea-pots (with infusers, and directions in Persian how to infuse Indian tea properly), and so on.

(3) See my remarks, under the heading of "Trade," regarding the touring of India by Persian boys, who have been sent there to be educated.

(4) The encouragement of Persian merchants to visit Indian trade centres by the granting of assisted passages to and fro. This would keep them in touch with India, and would inform them of her producing capabilities, as well as her requirements.

By the above means much useful knowledge could be simply and economically diffused over Persia, to the benefit of trade and the increase of British influence. I have purposely avoided going into details as to how the suggested sample rooms should be worked, as I feel sure this can be best left to Government and the Chambers of Commerce, as also the particulars of purchases for Toshakhanas.

It must be remembered that if the Government of India, through its Consular Officers, is to assist British and Indian manufacturers and traders, it is the duty of the latter to assist the Government, and they can do so in more ways than one. Consular Officers complain that their reports are asked for and scrutinized, as a rule, only by journalists for the sake of the often valuable and interesting copy they furnish. The complaint is a general one, and is not confined to Persia. Chambers of Commerce and similar bodies ought to make a point of scrutinizing and circulating Consular reports, bringing to the notice of Government any points on which information is required but not given. At present these reports are in many ways faulty, and are always issued at too late a date. Chambers might also formulate a note, showing generally what information is required, and how it should be furnished. Monographs on certain important trade items, or peculiarities, might also be asked for.

In the past, I fear, we have been too prone to criticise the faults and failings of Government without doing anything to help to improve matters. Let us hope that, in the future, the mercantile community will not lay itself open to this charge, but, by more strenuous efforts, help Government to help them.

COMMUNICATIONS—

Of the three prime wants of Persia, not the least is the improvement of communications. Waterways there are none, and roads there are practically none. All transport is consequently done by pack animals (except on three short stretches of road in the North,—Resht-Tehran, Tehran-Meshed and Ashkabad-Meshed,—where rough wagons now are, and motor cars will in the future be, used). Camels, mules and donkeys, are still, in the twentieth century, as they were in the second, the Carriers of Persian Commerce. Persia, too, is backward as regards her Postal arrangements and Telegraphic systems. After irrigation and reorganisation, roads are Persia's prime necessity. Considering them, we pass naturally to postal and telegraphic communications.

In all Persia there are not five properly built roads. Tracks there are in plenty. The great caravan routes are but tracks, over great stretches of which travellers find it necessary to invoke the assistance of guides. The improvement of these tracks is not only desirable, but essential. There is no question of Persia's embarking on a great road building scheme. It is not to be expected that she will, even a century hence, be covered with a network of

roads, after the fashion of European or American States or of India. With a thin and widely scattered population of 10 millions, whose annual consumption of imported articles amounts to only R7-8-0 per head, and whose export trade is a little lower than this, she cannot afford to build roads, to say nothing of Railways, on such a scale. It is to be hoped, however, that in time the main caravan routes will be improved and kept in good order.

In the meanwhile much might be done to improve the present very unsatisfactory condition of communications. Kaffilas have for ages worked their toilsome way along river beds and valleys, over mountain passes and along certain tracks across the plains. In time a faint and indistinct groove has been worn in the ground, and at night the silent camels find their way across the desert by scenting the taint left by those that went before them along the track.

Where these tracks cross the wide plains, or lie along or athwart the great valleys of the high Persian plateau, they need little or no improvement. They bear no resemblance, it is true, to the great Indian trunk roads, but they serve their purpose and are good enough. There are places on these caravan routes however, where Nature has failed to make a passable roadway, and where it would be well if Science stepped in. Occasionally, the roads run through deep sand, more frequently for miles over stones, sometimes over boulders,—always terribly hard on animals. Many of the passes are easy; others again are extremely difficult, some impassable, even for lightly laden camels, and scarcely passable for other pack animals. The expenditure of modest sums of money, and the exercise of a limited amount of engineering skill, would enable these difficulties to be reduced considerably. With the worst parts of the roads made easy, the costliness of transport, alike in time and money, would be reduced.

It is a different thing when one comes to the consideration of the tracks connecting the coast towns and ports with the towns on the plateau. The only expression that can be used in connection with these tracks (it matters not whether we have in mind those from Bander Abbas or Bushire) is "terrible." Here the assistance of the road builder is not only greatly to be desired, but is essential.

Regarding roads from the low to the high lands it would be necessary to have the opinion of an engineering expert who has studied the ground before any definite proposition could be made. Still, subject of course to professional criticism, it seems to me, notwithstanding the opinion expressed by Mr. Maclean, that the construction of roads from the coast to the plateau is not only necessary, but presents no insuperable difficulty. The construction of such roads would cheapen traffic, would decrease the time occupied and damage at present incurred, in carriage of goods, and would, in the not distant future, cause an appreciable increase in trade.

The road over the kotals between Bushire and Shiraz presents too many difficulties for the Engineer to conquer cheaply, but, as shown in the section devoted to Bushire, another route could be taken, which, avoiding the kotals, would enable a fairly easy road to be made between Bushire and Shiraz. A fair road, practicable in winter and summer alike, could also be made between Bander Abbas and the plateau, avoiding the ill-omened Tang-i-Zindan, for most of its length, if made to the east *viâ* Fariab (Puriab).

It appéars to me to be more in the interest of trade that improved communications should be opened between the ports and the interior, than by land from India, as transit by land is always more expensive than by water.

By shipping goods to Bander Abbas and Mohammerah, and thence inland, a considerable saving would accrue, provided proper roads were available and wheeled traffic could run. At present, owing to bad and difficult roads, want of transport animals, insecurity and such like, trade is hampered in every conceivable manner.

Goods for the interior are sometimes delayed for months, waiting for pack animals, or until a sufficient number can be collected to form a large caravan and thus ensure immunity from attack and robbery.

Then the lack of a properly organised system of transport causes delays; owing to want of water and grazing, animals are not kept at the ports, but have to be procured from the interior, and at times it is impossible to make up a caravan for want of transport.

At Bushire, the premier port in the Persian Gulf, transport is frequently insufficient, and, consequently, goods are delayed in transit, sometimes even having to be re-shipped to another port, as was the case with the telegraph stores for the Central Persian Section; and, although the question of transport is not so serious at Bander Abbas, goods for the interior are, even there, sometimes delayed for a month before pack animals are available.

This all means heavy loss. In the first place, there are the expenses of storage, and losses arising from deterioration at the port; then there are the losses from capital lying idle and from the late arrival of goods at their destination, which often means the loss of a rise in prices.

The foregoing shows, pretty conclusively, the urgent necessity for improved means of communication and the institution of properly organised means of transport; hence I am constrained to make the following suggestions for the favourable consideration of the Government of India and the Chambers of Commerce.

I do not think any scheme for a road, suitable for wheeled traffic, from Bushire or Bander Abbas to the interior, would be feasible over the kotal or over the mountains that run between the Plateau and the Littoral, but doubtless much could be done to improve and open up communications between Mohammerah and the interior, as well as regards Bander Abbas *viâ* Bam and Rigan.

The trade route from Bander Abbas *viâ* Minab and Rigan to the interior is to my mind, from a purely commercial point of view, the one that requires the most immediate attention; here we have no terrible kotals or places like the Tang-i-Zindan to cope with, but a comparatively easy country, if the Gishu pass be avoided and the road alignment taken through the easier Sabzu Pass.

Bander Abbas is the natural port of entry for goods intended for Southern Persia, and we must look to improvements here as the real means of developing the trade of a more or less virgin country. I have no hesitation in saying that money expended in improving the port and its communications will be money well spent, and will be a profitable investment both to the Government of Persia and that of India.

Much of the country that lies inland from Bander Abbas is quite untouched from a commercial point of view, and only awaits opening up; we cannot do this without a good road and more rapid and sure mean of transit than exist at present. Improved postal and telegrapic communications are easy of attainment, and are, I understand, receiving consideration. They will, however, be of comparatively little use without a good road suitable for wheeled traffic; this last is the crux, and how are we going to get over it?

My advice is that the Government of India apply at once for a concession to construct a road to Kerman *viâ* Minab, Rigan and Bam, the road to be built on proper levels, so that wheeled traffic could run along it with ease and celerity.

This would at once solve one of the greatest difficulties that at present lie in the path of trade development, for not only would it do away with delays and loss in transit, but it would open up a large tract of country, for the growth and exportation of cotton, gums, etc., that is now virtually an unprofitable desert, by bringing it in touch with Bander Abbas.

Later on extensions might be made up to Tehran, Seistan and Khorasan, and it is quite impossible that, once the road was made, it would be found feasible to run motor, or some other description of traction, cars for the carriage of merchandise.

Rapid and safe transit from the sea to the interior is what is wanted, and I can see no reason why it should not be obtained; once done, it is hard to say where the development of trade would stop, for I think it may safely be argued that, with easy and safe transit, there would come an enormous development of export trade, and, as a consequence, imports would also increase.

If my suggestions are wholly or partially adopted, a considerable local trade could be relied on in the way of henna, dates, raisins, fruit-juices, fruit and gum tragacanth both up and down.

To the above add the through trade to and from the ports that now exists, and, with the certainty of greater development, *when actual through booking comes into force*, the possible exploitation of the mineral resources of the country and the erection of mills and factories (the importation of machinery having been rendered possible by the opening up of a good road and wheeled traction), I think we have not an unpleasing picture of what the future of Southern Persia might be.

The linking up of Bander Abbas and Bam telegraphically would, in the event of my suggestion being carried out, become an absolute necessity; indeed, the mails might be carried by this route, too.

I have advocated the making of a road suitable for wheeled traffic from Bander Abbas to Kerman, as I consider any road merely going to Bam would be useless; the time and money saved by quick transit to Bam and safety in transit thereto would all be negatived by having to break bulk and tranship at Bam and then proceed to Kerman, Bahramabad, Yezd, etc., by ordinary means of transit; we must get goods to a place convenient in every way as a distributing centre, and to my mind Kerman is the place to get to first, wherever we may go to later on.

No statistics are available of inland trade, but some idea can be had, from the figures given under "Trading Centres," and I do not think, allowing for development of existing trade, as well as of new lines, such as minerals, cotton, wheat, gum, etc., that I am too sanguine in anticipating an increase of 50 per cent. in trade by the opening up of a good road on the lines suggested between Bander Abbas and Kerman.

If it be desired to develop the Nushki route to its utmost capacity, the railway should be extended to Kala Robat, on the confines of British territory. This would mean that the time occupied on the journey to Seistan would be considerably reduced, while the land trade of India with Persia would receive a very great impetus. The whole of Persian Baluchistan would be commanded, and Bam would then be only about 150 miles, and Nasratabad about 90 miles, distant from a British rail terminus. The line could be laid along the existing caravan road.

Having considered the present state and the future possibilities of trade routes in Southern Persia, I will now call attention to their insecurity. Travellers in Persia have nothing to dread from beasts of prey, but they have much to fear from highwaymen.

At certain season of the year, in certain localities, though their operations are not confined to those places, the highways of Persia are infested with brigands. These rogues are seldom particularly bold or enterprising in their work. Large and well-armed caravans, or armed Europeans, have little to fear. Travellers moving singly, or in small companies, together with the Persian Post, when there is reason to believe that it carries valuables, are constantly being looted in the spring and autumn, which are the times when the Nomads are on the move.

Robberies, however, often occur at other seasons of the year also. They are mostly frequent on those portions of the roads which cross their boundaries of two or more provinces, or lie close to them. For instance, looting occurs frequently on the Bander Abbas-Kerman road, where it crosses the boundary of Fars, and on the Bander Abbas-Khorasan road, where it skirts the Bashakird District. The reason for this state of affairs is that each Governor refuses to admit that the robbery has taken place in his province, and, whilst this point is being decided, the robbers escape.

There is no difficulty in determining the cause of the insecurity of roads, speaking generally. Every year the Government of the Shah apportions large sums of money for the establishment and equipment of guards to secure the safety of the roads. Almost the whole of this money is embezzled by the Persian officials, little indeed reaching the hands of the road-guards, who are

forced, in order to live, to emulate the lawlessness of the free-booters they are supposed to restrain. The story is an old one in Persia. It was the unpaid road-guards who, long ago, showed the Mongols and Turkoman hordes the way over the deserts, and through the mountains, where, had the officials of the Shah been passably honest, they must have perished.

Fortunately, there seems a prospect of better things ahead. The Imperial Government, thanks to the agitation of British Consular Officers and of Belgian Postal Officials, is now bethinking itself of how to put an end to this wholesale robbery, and, at the same time, to ensure in reality the safety of caravan traffic on the main routes. To this end certain officers on special duty, both Belgian and Persian, are abroad, making enquiries into abuses. Various schemes are under consideration for improving the safety of the roads and expediting the carriage of mails.

The best method of ensuring the safety of traffic, in my opinion, would undoubtedly be by the establishment of a Gendarmerie after the fashion of the Persian Cossack Brigade, which was raised in the northern provinces and officered by Russians. This Cossack Brigade was brought to a very high pitch of efficiency by General Kosagowski, who saw to it that the men were properly paid and equipped, and who made their head-quarters in Tehran one of the finest buildings in the Capital. The Brigade has three Russian officers attached to it, who, however, are not in the pay of the Persian Government. In the same way Gendarmerie, raised for the southern provinces, might be under the supreme direction of a British officer, and he might be assisted by two or three other British Officers, who would see that the force was properly paid, armed and disciplined.

Such an arrangement would very soon secure the safety of the roads, and would (provided Governors were not too incapable or rapacious) put down much of the lawlessness that constantly prevails in Fars, Laristan, Arabistan and the Bakhtiari districts, and thus bring about an improvement in the trade and revenue of the country.

An alternative scheme is that the officials who have the supplying and payment of the road-guards in their hands be required to carry the mails. This would ensure the presence of the guards on the roads, and would, in some measure, decrease the danger of highway robbery, as, to all intents and purposes, the roads would be continually patrolled. Any loss or damage to mails should be punished by heavy fines, inflicted not on the poorly paid guards, but on the Persian Officials responsible. The guards being mounted on ponies would also expedite the carriage of mails, and the slow donkey and foot messengers would disappear.

Yet a third way out of the difficulty presents itself to me.

The Persian Government might adopt a modification of our Frontier levy system. Instead of handing large sums of money to officials, and thus encouraging malversation, let the Government go straight to the heart of things. Ignoring one thief, let it go to the other, *i.e.*, the Nomad, and retain him. The highwayman is almost invariably a Nomad, or a Semi-Nomad of some one of the many tribes scattered over the land, mementoes of the many waves of invasion, which have swept over it.

If the large sums of money now paid to officials for disbursement to road-guards (of which money, as I have remarked before, the said road guards receive very little) were given to the Nomad Chiefs at the end of each year, each Chief, in his turn, engaging to guard the roads through his country, and to pay double the value of each article robbed within his ward, the highway robbery difficulty would, in my opinion, soon vanish.

II. The Postal Service in Persia has undoubtedly improved, in certain sections, since it has been taken over by the Belgian administration. The old, happy-go-lucky, want of method is now replaced by a system which, if far from perfect, is an improvement on the old state of affairs. Most of the towns of Persia now enjoy the advantage of a weekly post, whilst between such important places as Tehran and Meshed, Kisht, Tabriz, Julfa, Kerman, Bushire and Kermanshah, with, of course, the intermediate places, there is a bi-weekly service.

A parcels post service between Persia and Europe *viâ* Russia exists. This is not very satisfactory however, as all parcels are opened at the Russo-Persian Frontier, and losses through robbery are frequent. Matters would be improved if there were a European Agent on the Frontier to look after the taxing and forwarding of such postal parcels. At present there is no through foreign parcel post from the Gulf ports to the interior, a most unsatisfactory state of affairs, and one which needs alteration. The postage rates, too, for local parcels, are extremely high, proportionately very much higher than for letters.

The Belgians are trying to bring about still further improvements in the postal service. The mails now generally leave, and sometimes even arrive at, stations on the day notified. Mail robberies, arising from the giving of information by the Post Office Officials, are not quite so frequent as they once were, and fewer letters now get opened and lost in the Post Offices.

Much improvement is still, however, possible. In the first place, the rate at which the mails are carried on all but the great main lines need acceleration. The donkey and foot runner posts that at present exist between such places as Kerman and Bander Abbas ought to be replaced by a properly organised mounted post service, relays of ponies and riders being stationed at proper intervals. If this were done, the Bander Abbas-Kerman post, which now takes anything from 15 to 40 days, travelling less quickly than a caravan, would accomplish the distance of about 300 miles in under a week.

The linking up of places with the main Persian Postal System is also a point that demands immediate attention. It was only quite recently that Kerman was linked up with the important town of Bam by weekly postal service, but there the post now stops.

Why Bam should not be linked up with Seistan, which is only 200 miles off, seems difficult to understand. Quite a good road connects the two places, and the mails could be carried on trotting camels. In this way the distance could be covered in less than a week, and the Eastern Persian Postal System, like its telegraph system, would be directly connected with that of British India, as it already is with the Postal Service of Seistan by the Birjand-Meshed Road. An alternative route is now under consideration. This is the connection *viâ* Rawar, Kerman and Birjand.

III. Telegraphic communication in Persia has been greatly improved and extended of late years. In addition to the main Indo-European line from Tehran to Bushire, a second three-wire line has been constructed, and is known as the Central Persian Line. This line branches off from the Tehran-Bushire one at Kashan, and runs *viâ* Yezd, Kerman and Bam to Kala Robat on the British-Perso-Afghan Frontier, all the important towns *en route* being connected. From Bam to the Oasis of Fairaj, or Fahraj, there is a two-wire line, and from thence to Robat a single wire line. Robat was, during the presence in Seistan of the MacMahon Mission, linked up with Nushki by a light single wire line which owing to favourable climatic conditions has worked excellently and has been made permanent. There is a permanent telegraph line between Quetta and Nushki, and this new extension was thus, by the light line from Robat, directly linked up with the Indian Telegraph System.

It is intended to connect up the Central Persian Section with India by a line across Central Baluchistan, by the way of Rigan, Fahraj (Bampur) and Kuhak. A survey has been made across British Baluchistan for a line starting from Karachi, where the line will terminate, through Kolwan and Panjgur. The line will not be an easy one to construct, for several ranges of hills are crossed. The final linking up by this route of the Central Persian Section and the Indian Systems has long been delayed by the refusal of the Persian Government to grant permission to complete the work.

On both the Tehran, Bushire and Central Persian lines, one wire, the top one, is set apart exclusively for the use of the Persian Telegraph Administration, though it is under the maintenance and control of the Indo-European Telegraph Department in both cases.

In additon to the above-mentioned wires, the Persian Government maintains single wire lines to Kisht, Hamadan and Kermanshah, as well as a line from

Borasjoon (40 miles north of Bushire) to Mohammerah and Shuster. It would be to the advantage of all if the Persian Government could see its way to doing with the Borasjoon-Shuster line as it has done with the Tehran-Meshed line, and hand it over to the care of the Indo-European Telegraph Department.

The lines maintained by the Persian Government are not to be depended upon. Little money is spent upon their upkeep, with the natural result that interruptions, lasting for days, are frequent. These lines are carried on wooden posts of a somewhat inferior nature; they decay very easily, and are, as a consequence, very insecure, being easily blown over, or, as often happens, knocked down by camels rubbing themselves against them.

The Persian operatives, too, leave much to be desired. They are negligent of their duties, absenting themselves on the slightest pretext, and are greatly wanting in those elementary essentials in Telegraphy, *viz.*, "Secrecy and Despatch."

Messages can be tendered and received at any of the stations on the Indo-European Telegraph Line in any language, provided they are written in the Roman character, but on the Persian Government System they must be written in the vernacular of the country. The only exception to this rule is in the case of telegrams for Kisht or Kermanshah.

In the appendices will be found Tables of Persian Inland Rates, and the Foreign Tariff in force on the Tehran-Bushire Division of the Indo-European System. The unit for inland messages is ten words, and the cost varies according to distance, from 3 Krans to 5 Krans (roughly 12 annas to R1-4-0) for 10 words. There is only one class of message, and telegrams are not sent Urgent, or Deferred. The sending of these inland messages is confined to certain hours of the day. At all other times trans-continental messages, which pass automatically through stations, take precedence. The rate for messages between India and towns in Persia is R1-2-0 per word; between Bushire and the United Kingdom, Francs 2·16½; between the United Kingdom and all Persian towns Krans 4·75; between Russia in Europe and all Persian towns, except Bushire, Krans 2·50; between Russia in Europe, the Caucasus and Bushire Francs 1·29 per word.

The Persian Government line between Tehran and Meshed is by arrangement, maintained by the Indo-European Telegraph Department, and special English speaking clerks are retained at Tehran and Meshed for the receipt and despatch of messages. The intermediate stations are worked by ordinary Persian operators. As the result of the foregoing, interruptions on this section are rare, and Meshed may claim to be in absolutely perfect communication with Tehran. Meshed is also connected by telegraph line with Kuchan, Bujnurd and Sarrakhs.

A single wire line exists between Meshed and Nasratabad, the capital of Seistan, which, though classed as a Persian line, was constructed at the instance of the Russian Government, who have also secured concessions for two telegraphic links between their own system and Meshed and Kuchan. The connection between Nasratabad and Robat should in the interests of Indian commerce be no longer delayed.

Despite the many improvements that have, of late years, taken place, much remains to be done before Persia can be said to have a perfect Telegraph System. At the beginning of 1905 there was only a single wire running across the Lut, from Fahraj (30 miles east of Bam) to Kala Robat, which had been linked up by a light line with Nushki, and thus with the Indian lines. It is also intended, however, as I have shown, to link up the Central Persian Section with India by the way of Kuhak, and it is to be hoped this will soon be done.

Through messages, of a public or commercial nature, could not be sent over the land wire to India in 1904-05, owing, I was informed, to some difficulties in connection with the adjustment of accounts with the cable sections. A telegram from Kerman to India has at present to be sent *viâ* Tehran and Bushire, costing something more per word than a telegram from India to England, surely a most improper state of affairs, and one likely to be detrimental to

commercial interests. I would strongly recommend the removal of these restrictions on the Indo-Persian land link, so that messages may be sent at a reasonable cost.

An even more crying necessity is the linking up of Bander Abbas telegraphically with Persia and the outside world. It seems incredible that this port, which may justly claim to be one of the most important in the Gulf, should be isolated in the manner it is, both telegraphically and postally, but such is the case. I trust this matter may receive the attention it deserves. At present the nearest telegraph station is 50 miles away, on the Island of Henjam, behind the elbow of Kishm. If no adverse winds or currents prevailed in that region, or if the Department were provided with a swift telegraph launch, matters would not be so bad. As it is, adverse winds and currents are frequent, and for weeks at a time the miserable sailing boats of the Bander find it impossible to make the island, and *vice versâ*.

It is no uncommon thing, even under favourable circumstances, for two or three days to elapse between the sending of a message from Bander Abbas and its despatch from Henjam, while in any case the expense is absurdly high.

If we are to develop British trade in Southern Persia, no delay should be allowed in linking up Bander Abbas, both by cable and land wire, with the rest of Persia and the world. In neither of these two undertakings would the question of expense form a considerable item.

To link up with the cable system would only necessitate a short length of cable, and the principal telegraph station would then be placed at Bander Abbas.

As regards linking up with the Indo-European Telegraph system overland, its cost should not be great, as the wire and some of the posts, as well as, possibly, insulators of the old Persian Government line from Ispahan to Kerman, now dismantled, might be used, shortages in posts and insulators being supplemented economically.

If the consent of the Persian Government could be obtained, a start might be made at once, it being remembered that there is a line already at Bahramabad and a telegraph office at Bam, which is on the direct line of the Indo-European Telegraph system.

Perhaps, of the two, a land line is more important for Bander Abbas than connection with the cable. Messages would be cheaper, and it would tend to make the roads connecting Kerman with the coast safer, as robberies could be instantly reported, enabling prompt steps to be taken for the punishment of robbers. Lastly, trade centres would be put in touch with each other and with the port.

There are five possible routes for the linking up, telegraphically, of Kerman and Bander Abbas. The two best are—one *viâ* Ahmedi, Saiadabad and Bahramabad, 335 miles in length, and the other *viâ* Bam, 240 miles in length.

The latter would run along the ancient caravan route to Khorasan, and link up with the Central Persian System at Bam. It has the advantage of being much shorter than the other, but the disadvantage of crossing high passes in the Jabel Bariz, and so running risks from snow. From a trading point of view, as matters *now* stand, there can be no question as to the advantages of the line *viâ* Ahmedi, Saiadabad and Bahramabad to Kerman. This is the line that is wanted, with intermediate stations, which could be used for guard-houses and post offices as well. The line would cost about R365 per mile. Estimates have already been submitted to His Excellency the Mukhbar-u-Daulah for this line, which, it is hoped, will soon be constructed.

Whatever extension is eventually decided upon, it is certain that the line must be managed and maintained by the Indo-European Telegraph Department. Under Persian management it would be worse than useless, as it could not be depended upon, and would be sure to fail at a critical moment.

In support of this assertion I would mention an instance that came to my personal observation at Bahramabad, when a Kassid (foot messenger) coming, from Kerman, beat a telegraphic message sent from the Persian Office at

Bahramabad. I am informed that the line was in perfect working order, but apparently it did not suit the convenience of the clerk in charge (a Persian Colonel) to work, and it took 4½ days to get the message through to Kerman, whilst the Kassid brought one in 2 days from Kerman. To avoid risking such delays, and for other obvious reasons, it is essential that the extension should be under European management. Bahramabad, an important trade centre, ought to be brought under the Indo-European System.

In conclusion I would urge that another connection, which appears desirable, is that between the Central Persian line and Seistan. A line has recently been constructed between Meshed and Seistan, and, although the latter is now in telegraphic communication with India, the suggested connection would be desirable in many ways. At present the Meshed-Seistan line stops at the town of Nasratabad (Seistan); it only needs another hundred miles of line to link up with the Central Persian System at Ispi, thus, as it were, completing the circuit.

The locality of the telegraph offices is a matter that appears to require attention. The office at Bam, for instance, is a dirty den in a caravanserai, nearly three miles from town. The consequences are that the towns folk prefer to use the Persian Office, which is in the town, in a fine house, and is very central. The Armenian signaller has not only to live in great discomfort, owing to the numerous camel ticks that infest his quarters, because of the proximity of the caravanserai, but is also condemned to, more or less, solitary confinement. The telegraph office at Kerman is in a big house in a fine position, and the offices at Bam and other places might be selected with equal care: under the best of circumstances a signaller's life is often very lonely and hard to bear.

ENGINEERING—

The future prospect of Persia is, to a great extent, in the hands of the engineer. The elementary forces have scooped out the valleys and gorges for the roads of the land, and have heaved up the great crests of the naked mountains to be a resting place for the snows that keep the country from becoming an absolute desert. The day must come, however, when, if Persia desires to progress, she must invoke the assistance of skilled engineers to build her the roads and irrigation works that she requires, to study her gaunt mountain chains and to search their bowels for the minerals with which nature so often dowers a land on which she has laid the curse of barrenness. The engineer, when he comes, will find much to employ and interest him, and his reward should be great.

On the matter of roads, I have already spoken. In this sub-section I shall deal, in particular, with irrigation and mining.

Irrigation.—Irrigation, extensive and perfect irrigation, is Persia's most pressing necessity, after improved government and communications. For want of sufficient water the land is more than half desert. Given a sufficient supply of water, Persia, much of which possesses as perfect a climate as could be desired, and a soil which is naturally fertile, would be a garden. The problem is how to get this water. To the solving of this point ought to be invited the most skilled engineers whose services Persia can engage. Had I not unhappily been deprived of the services of an Engineer when this Mission was formed, I would have been able to make some valuable suggestions on this subject in my report. As it is, all that I can do is diffidently to offer certain suggestions, trusting to the fact that I gave much time and earnest study to the matter to disarm any criticism arising from my being a layman.

Irrigation is, as I have said, Persia's greatest need. Without it she becomes a desert. As it is, every village irrigates, with painful toil, its few fields, and draws its supply of life-giving water at the cost of infinite trouble from the distant snow-clad mountains, by means of under-ground channels known as *Kanats*, or *Karez*. Still, every day, the desert encroaches upon the oases of fertile land. Every year sees an extension of the arid zone and an addition to the dreary number of ruined and abandoned villages and Kanats. Every year the rivers and streams that come down from the naked hills seem either

to run themselves out or to retire deeper under ground. That this desiccation has been progressive for many ages is evidenced by the remains of dead villages and the lines of half obliterated *Kanat* wells, to be found in the interior deserts of Kerman, and in the howling wilderness of the terrible Lut.

The question is, is this slow, but sure, withering of all the land to go on, as it has been going on, until the whole of South-Eastern Persia is Lut, or is the engineer to interfere and to conquer the desert in Persia, as he has in parts of India and Egypt, and hopes to do in South Africa and Mesopotamia? From the point of view of humanity and of trade it is to be hoped that the engineer will be permitted to set to work and change the present aspect of the country. The desert encroaches now, because the *Kanat* irrigation is so primitive. The work is slow, three miles a year being the rate of construction. It is easily brought to ruin by such accidents as a heavy sand or rain storm, or the falling in of earth or a rock in the deep under-ground channels. Owing to faulty levels, silting-up is common, whilst immense quantities of water are lost by percolation. There is one thing, however, in favour of the *Kanat* system. The water, running in deep, covered channels, is less subject to evaporation (rapid in this dry climate), than it would be in surface channels.

The rainfall of Persia is not great. It may perhaps reach eight inches a year in the South-Eastern region, and 12 to 14 in the South-west. What rain does fall, except in the form of snow, runs off the hills at once, for they are absolutely void of trees and vegetation, and consist chiefly of bare rocks from which the soil has been washed away long ago. There is nothing to check the rush of water down the steep slopes, and the consequence is that it swirls, a muddy stream, down the ravines into the valleys, where some of it is used, but the most part runs to waste. No efforts have been made for many centuries to build reservoirs or dams, or to conserve in any way the snow or storm water. It seems to me possible to prevent this waste of water, which is to Persia more precious than diamonds. I have, with Major Sykes, visited the ravines above the ruins of ancient Camadi on the upper reaches of the Halil Rud, which waters the Jiruft Valley, and have explored the ravines above the ancient, but now vanished, Bund-i-Nissa, on the nameless river to which Narmashir owes its verdure. In both these places there are excellent sites for big dams, the building of which would result in quadrupling the cultivable area in those regions. There are scores of other places in this mountaineous land where sites for dams and reservoirs could be found.

Of course it may be, and doubtless will be, urged that it is easier to talk of building reservoirs than to enter upon their construction. It will be asked, too, if the amount of silt, brought down by the rushing rain from the bare hills, will not ruin the reservoirs. The instance of two trials in British Baluchistan may be urged. In answer to this I would suggest that the Baluch Hills are composed of softer material than the majority of the hills of the Iranian Plateau, and that it is practicable to construct proper silt traps for such reservoirs, and to keep them clean, as in the case of ordinary drains; the scale would be larger, that is all. Of course work, such as that under consideration, would have to be entrusted to skilled irrigation engineers, not to men who, though engineers, were not experienced in this particular line.

Railways.—There is another item of engineering interest, which, though, its proper place is under the head of "Communications," I have omitted to notice before, because, in the first place, I can only hint at it, and, in the second place, its accomplishment lies very much in the future. This is railway construction.

Before anything could be decided on regarding railways, now or hereafter, elaborate surveys would have to be undertaken. From a close scrutiny of routes, and of the country, however, it seems to me that no very considerable engineering difficulties stand in the way of the construction of a railway line from Bander Abbas to Bam, by way of Minab, Rudbar and the Gishu Pass, or, as an alternative route, over the easier Sabsu Pass, a few miles south and west of the Gishu.

The problems which the railway engineers will have to solve would not be nearly as serious as those solved by the builders of the Great Indian Peninsula Railway over the ghauts, or through the Satpuras, or even by the

builders of the East Coast Line. The distance too would be short, not 200 miles, and the difficult bits shorter still. From Bam it could be extended as necessity demanded.

It would not pay as a commercial undertaking to build this, or any other, line, in Persia under present conditions, and never will pay, unless the production, population and trade of the country are at least doubled.

Whatever be the opinion as to the possibility of any Persian railway paying or not, it must never be forgotten that the Russians have sketched out for construction as soon as possible, three lines of railway in Persia.

According to the present Russo-Persian Agreement no nation at present may build railways in Persia. But Russia can abrogate that Agreement whenever it suits her to do so, I fancy.

Of these three possible schemes, one is for a railway to enter Tehran from Baku, through Kisht, running over the Russian road. The second will start from Julfa on the Trans-Caucasian border, enter Tehran, by way of Tabriz, and then run through Southern Persia, reaching the Gulf at Bushire by way of Kashan, Ispahan and Shiraz, avoiding the Kotals, of course. The difficulties to be encountered in the construction are great, and the cost will be heavy, but the difficulties are not insuperable, and the Russians have doubtless counted the cost. The third line will take off from the Russian Trans-Caspian Railway near, or at, Ashkabad, and run into Meshed, whence it will be extended to Seistan, and continued through Persian Baluchistan to the Gulf, touching the sea at Minab or Bander Abbas.

If these Russian plans are carried into effect, they will hit British influence and trade in Persia very hard.

Harbour Construction.—Another matter needing the attention of engineers is harbour construction. As pointed out in that portion of my report on "Trade Centres," the town of Bander Abbas is superior to Bushire, alike as a port and as a gate of entry to South-East and Central Persia. The roadstead is already very much better than that at Bushire. Improvement is, however, wanted. This could be effected by dredging operations, which would permit ships to lie well inshore, and, by deepening the water, at the same time improve the health of the town considerably. The building of a good pier would also facilitate work, and the erection of a breakwater would save the port from the fury of the formidable surf that is now set up whenever the wind is strong from the South-East. North-west of Bander Abbas, a few miles along the Clarence Strait, there is a site where, protected from the worst effects of storms by the Island of Kishm a harbour could be built, at comparatively small cost, where a whole fleet of merchants' ships or men-of-war, could anchor.

As so much depends on Bander Abbas, I trust my plea for its improvement may meet with consideration.

The port of Bushire could also be vastly improved, at a small cost, by cutting the bar, and dredging behind it. This would enable ships to anchor, in a safe harbour, at a short distance from the town, instead of, as at present, in open roadsteads, distance 3 to 7 miles from the Customs wharf,—but I do not advocate this.

Mining.—Before closing my remarks on engineering possibilities in Persia, I would like to make just a few about mining. The contorted strata of the mountains with which Persia bristles are certainly highly mineralised, but these mountains lie to-day almost as little explored as the mountains of Patagonia.

Here in places copper is worked, after a primitive fashion, and here and there other minerals and oxides, whilst one or two mines, such as the Turquoise mines of Nishapur, and the oxide cliffs of Hormuz, the ancient, are famous. Organized and intelligent search for minerals has never been carried out, and in the few places where minerals are still worked the methods now adopted are even more crude than those used by the workers of two thousand years ago.

Persia has been too much troubled by wars and the intrigues of kings to permit of her attending to her own development. She has only begun to experience a qualified peace within the last century. It is only now that

search and development have again become possible. The mountains of Persia, which hold little beauty for the lover of trees, are full of interest and promise for the mining engineer and the geologist, for it strikes me that geologically Persia is a wonderful land.

I have not had an opportunity of examining closely the hills with a view to studying their formation, but a list of minerals and the localities where they are to be found in quantity will not be without interest, I trust.

Asbestos is to be found in the Darbund Range, which hills are reported to be full of copper, lead and zinc. The biggest finds are reported between Naiband and Rawar, at an elevation of 2,180 feet, where there is good water-supply. In the neighbourhood of Kubanan, close to and north-west of Rawar, are found iron, sulphate of copper, etc., etc. This place is near the Darbund range, which lies to the north-east of it; Marco Polo mentions this localty.

The hills round Abarik near Tehrud on the Kerman-Bam road are reported to abound in lead and zinc. Coal is reported to exist in the Kinaman range, lying between Kerman and Bahramabad. Borax is found in considerable quantities in the Yezd district, and was, at one time, worked by mining corporation, which had, however, to suspend operations owing to difficulties of transport. Major Sykes describes in his book "Ten thousand miles in Persia" a visit paid by him to some copper mines in the Boanat District. Copper also exists in the Kuh-i-Bahr-i-Asman Range, as well as in the neighbourhood of Nasratabad in Seistan, in the Kuh-i-Malusan. These works, called the Chihal Kura or Forty Furnaces, were closed, owing to their being so often raided, and are reported to be extremely rich.

The whole of the range lying south of Kerman is, like the Koh-i-Bahr-i-Asman, rich in minerals, according to report. There are, I am told, large and ancient copper mines in Basoram, two miles south of Killa-Zarin on the edge of the Lut. One is reported to be very rich, and, could communication be improved and a supply of fuel or electric power secured, might repay re-opening. Transport, fuel and food supplies are amongst the great difficulties that stand in the way of the mining engineer in Persia.

In conclusion, let me urge on all the necessity for not frittering away our resources or advantages; let the whole question of engineering and with it improvements in ports and communications be studied in a cool and dispassionate manner, avoiding all sentiment.

Let it be decided definitely the ports and communications that hold out the greatest possibilities for the *future* from *every* point of view, and then let us spare neither money nor trouble to be first in the field and develop them to their utmost.

We are not about to introduce anything new; we are only following in the footsteps of our great northern rival, and have a right to demand in our own sphere of influence everything she has in hers.

CUSTOMS—

The disturbance caused in Persian trade, by the sudden introduction of the present Customs Tariff, will soon settle down. The tariff is, in many ways, unfair to British interests, both in the export and import trade of Persia. Some of the chief Persian products taken by the British Empire are wheat, grains, linseed, sesame and opium. In all of these the new Tariff increased taxation from $3\frac{3}{8}$ to 20 per cent., whilst, at the same time, exports taken almost entirely by Russia, such as rice and cotton, were freed from all taxation, or had the taxation reduced to a nominal amount. It is the same with imports. Indian tea, for instance, which formerly was taxed at 5 per cent. *ad valorem*, is now burdened with a taxation of 6 Krs. per Batman (=6·5 lbs.), thus the incidence of taxation varies from 50 to 90 per cent., the cheaper the tea, the heavier it is taxed. The duty on petroleum, almost purely a Russian product, has, on the other hand, been reduced from the 5 per cent. *ad valorem* that it paid under the old Turkoman Chai arrangement of 1828 to $1\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. under the new tariff.

Articles produced in common by both Empires, such as piece-goods, for instance, pay equal duties. Yet, even so, it is evident that the substitution of

a tariff of charges by weight for an *ad valorem* charge is to the advantage of Russia. Russian goods are more costly at the ports of entry than are Indian or Manchester goods, as a rule. Under the old system of taxation by value British goods thus got in more cheaply than Russian. Now a ton of cheap British piece-goods pays the same duty as a ton of dear Russian goods of the same kind. The British manufacturer has, in consequence, to a considerable extent, been deprived, by the new Tariff, of the benefits arising from better productive and business methods, and has been forced to feel to the utmost the disadvantages arising from bad roads, long leads, and expensive transport in Persia.

The new Tariff ought to have benefited the export trade considerably, as it removed most of the duties on exported goods. Indeed, immediately after its introduction, the export trade increased greatly. Persia was also to have benefited in another way by the introduction of the new Tariff, for Article 3 of the Convention arranged for the removal of all the onerous inland taxes, such as octroi, road cesses, etc., levied on kafilas by local authorities. Unfortunately, however (as I will describe later on under the heading of "Illegal Imposts"), though legally abolished, all these ancient taxes mentioned are illegally levied alike by road-guards and officials, and this has checked trade considerably.

The result of the introduction of the new Tariff, and its administration by European officials, has, so far, been an increase of revenue, but it is open to doubt if it has helped trade generally.

Custom House officials do not always understand the necessity for acting, rather according to the spirit of the law than the letter.

More rational methods must be adopted in the conduct of customs business, otherwise there will be no end to much of the needless friction that now exists, and that has done so much harm to trade at the Gulf ports.

Importers of British goods and traders at Bander Abbas complained of having been put to considerable loss, both in time and money, to say nothing of having been subjected to numerous petty annoyances through the conduct of the Customs officials.

Owing to the advent of a new Customs Director at Bushire, who evidently considered it his duty to act absolutely according to the letter of the law as read by him, a dead-lock in trade resulted there, merchants refusing to clear goods or ship them, and in some cases even refusing to unload from the ships.

The Tariff, as it now exists, is based on an extremely complicated system, as opposed to the old simple method of taxation by value. The system of levying duties ought to be changed. Simplicity in such matters is essential, especially in a country like Persia, where the traders, and people generally, are centuries behind the times, according to Western ideas. The present system of levying duties is slow, vexatious, and open to great abuse, to say nothing of being extremely complicated. An *ad valorem* system would work easily, especially as it is understood by the traders. The objects secured by the present complicated system could be secured equally as well under an *ad valorem* one by merely raising or lowering the percentage of duties on certain commodities. The present arrangement of placing the Customs administration under a neutral official element could still be carried out. This change in system would avoid misunderstandings, and spare Persian and Indian traders alike the thousand and one annoyances to which they are now subjected.

The Règlement Légal, in which are contained the chief rules for the working of the Customs, was late in appearing. When it did appear, it soon became evident that it had been drawn up, and accepted, without sufficient thought having been given to the conditions and requirements of the country and its trade, and more especially the conditions of the trade of the ports in the Persian Gulf.

The Règlement consists of 122 Articles. Of these, 18 are open to criticism in varying degrees, and their continued existence threatens to bring the whole

sea-borne commerce of Persia to a standstill, as has been the case in Bushire. The Articles objected to are Nos. 7, 9, 11, 20, 22, 24, 26, 43, 50, 98, 99, 101, 103, 104, 106, 107, 113, 114.

The objection to Article 7 arises from the fact that it imposes a number of stamp and other fees which press very heavily on merchants. Most of these fees ought never to have come into existence, as they are a serious addition to the imposts on goods.

To stamp-fees justly due, such as stamps on declaration forms, merchants make no objection. To others they do object, and not unreasonably. Some of these stamp-fees are levied for work done in the interests of the Custom House, rather than of the merchants, and all are too heavy. Of this class are fees of 2 krans which must be paid for stamps affixed to letters of request for permission to verify goods, and to delivery orders. The examination and verification of goods forms part of the duties of the Customs Officials. The delivery order is a new and quite unnecessary addition to the documents demanded of merchants, and strengthens the idea that the Customs authorities are trying to work up a new source of revenue by means of stamp duties. There is no reason why goods should not be delivered, as before, on Bill of Lading, without any fee. If the Customs Officials consider a delivery order necessary and convenient, they ought not to insist on it carrying a 2-kran stamp, and requests for permission to verify goods ought to pass free.

A charge of 15 cents per package is also made for "Control labels," without which the Customs authorities will permit nothing to be cleared. The charge seems insignificant, but the percentage works out to a heavy one on the value of certain classes of goods (to one per cent. on cases of Kerosine oil, and to even more on small parcels). Seeing that the supposed main object of these labels is to indicate that goods have been passed through the Customs, would not this be just as well attained by a chalk signature, or a stamped mark after the fashion obtaining in other countries. If a label is insisted on, it ought to be affixed free of charge.

The rules regarding declaration forms (to the stamping of which no objection is made) are not free from objection. The space for the entry of details of goods in the forms is limited, and if all goods imported by a merchant cannot be entered in this space, paper is not allowed to be added, but a new form, carrying another stamp, has to be filled in by the declarant. The Custom House also insists that all goods are not to be entered in one form, but that each class of goods is to be cleared on a separate declaration form, each bearing its own 2-kran stamp.

Merchants in Bushire and Bander Abbas cited cases where goods of the same description, but of different commercial marks, have had to be cleared on separate forms, and gave instances where the declaration of packages of miscellaneous goods entailed the use of twice as many declaration forms as there were packages.

Under these circumstances the fee of 2 krans on each form becomes a very heavy addition to the import duties, and merchants are not unreasonable when they contend that it ought to be permissible to enter all goods imported under one Bill of Lading on one declaration form, provided that declarants group clearly the various classes to which the goods belong. If the Customs still think separate forms essential, the stamp-fees ought to be for each invoice, and be levied only once.

There are three reasons for the objection to the other articles above mentioned—

(*a*) Some are obscure and ill-defined.

(*b*) Others are unworkable, being unsuited to the conditions obtaining in Persia and the ports in the Persian Gulf.

These have been imported bodily it would seem from the Customs rules in force in Belgium, a small and civilized country, where railways have abolished distance and ships work alongside wharves, close to the Custom House, under the eye of the Central Administration.

How different is the state of affairs in Persia! At Bushire and Bander Abbas, for instance, ships have to ride in roadsteads three to seven miles from shore ; the loading and unloading is done in a most inefficient manner by small boats, which are dependent on wind and tide. The Central Administration, to which all appeals must be referred, is at Tehran, a month's journey, or more, from the ports.

(*c*) Lastly, the remainder of the articles mentioned above as objected to would become unnecessary if the required reforms and modifications were introduced in the others, and consequently might be removed with benefit to all.

Meetings have been held at Bushire to discuss the working of the Règlement, and certain suggestions were forwarded for consideration through the various Consuls-General and Consuls at that town to the Central Government at Tehran. The earnest attention of Government and of the mercantile community is invited to this subject, as it is one that vitally affects commerce with Persia. I have laid the papers before the Upper India Chamber of Commerce.

The frequent and imperfect announcement of changes in regulations used to be a fruitful cause of complaint. These changes became much less frequent after the promulgation of the Règlement Légal, and are now confined, more or less, to comparative minor details and local regulations. Nevertheless, the cause of complaint still remains, for no proper system exists for informing traders of these changes. Notifications are seldom circulated, but are merely posted in the Custom House, being, as a rule, printed, or written, in French. What is wanted is that all Customs' notifications should be printed in Persian, English and French, and circulated to merchants, correspondence also being accepted in any of these languages.

There is no sufficient reason why, seeing the proportion that English trade and shipping bear to the trade and shipping of all other nations in the Gulf, notifications of changes, and correspondence, should not be in English, as well as in Persian and French. French is only spoken by the most highly placed and best educated Persians and foreigners. Persian is understood by all traders, whether natives of India or Persia. This language question is the cause of much irritation and many misunderstandings. The British sailor and the British trader prefer to do their work in English, and seeing what the English have done in opening up, safeguarding and developing the Persian Gulf trade, their views deserve some consideration. In this matter, if the above suggestions are not carried out, the Consular authorities and our Government might greatly assist British traders, Agents, and shippers, many of whom know little or no Persian or French, especially commercial French, by securing the early translation into English, and issue of all Customs' codes and notices.

Lastly, it is not generally understood why the Kran should be dealt with by the Customs authorities in the peculiar manner it is when calculating exchange. For instance, if the calculation has to be made in connection with Russian coinage, it is done direct, by taking so many krans as equal to a rouble. When, however, the operation refers to British money, the process becomes lengthened and more complex, for exchange is calculated (*vide.* Article 6 of the Commercial Convention of 1903) through the medium of the French Franc. As the Franc is unknown in the country, the reason for this arrangement is not very evident.

In the towns of the interior there are no Custom Houses. But in certain towns there are Customs officers and posts. At Kerman there is a Director of Customs, who looks after the postal arrangements, and the collecting and remission of Imperial Revenue. In addition to these duties, he has control over Customs posts established at Kerman, Sirjan, Rafsinjan and Bam for the prevention of the trade in arms. These stations are in the charge of the post masters at these places, but evidently do little good, to judge from the number and quality of the arms in the hands of the Nomads. The arms carried by these people are superior in every way to those possessed by the Imperial and

Provincial troops, and are very much better kept. Little or no difficulty, too, seems to attend the acquirement of ammunition. This is not good for the safety of the roads and the Shah's less lawless subjects, and is bad for the peace of the country generally. Much of the ammunition used in Persia is manufactured locally, the cartridge-cases being reloaded with native-made powder and ball. There is, however, not a little foreign ammunition in the country, and no one seems to know how this gets in.

ILLEGAL IMPOSTS—

In the Introduction to the Commercial Statistical Report for the year Tavichkan-il (21st March 1903 to 20th March 1904) the Belgian Minister of Persian customs writes:—

> "Que l'œuvre du nouveau tarif a été favorable à la Perse et a complété utilemente l'œuvre de la suppression des abus du fermage, et des taxes douanières intérieures, abolies par la loi de Zilhadjé, 1319."

Unfortunately, however, the Customs Administration congratulates itself without reason. The imposts on the trade in the interior, such as Rahdari, Octroi, etc., though abolished by the law of Zilhadjé, 1319, still exist, and have, indeed, never ceased to exist. Of their existence the Persian Government has not been ignorant, neither has it failed to draw pecuniary advantage from taxes whose continuance is in direct violation of the Convention between Persia and Great Britain, dated March 1903, and is a breach of Article 3 of the Customs Law which has only just been promulgated. Article 3 says that merchandize imported into Persia from a country enjoying the most favoured nation treatment is subject only to the payment of those Customs charges fixed by the Tariff legally in force, and to the taxes enumerated in Article 7 of the Règlement Légal. These taxes, seven in number, include import and export dues, stamp dues, rent, handling charges and charges for the use of cranes. All other imports or taxes, such as "Octroi," "Khanat," "Maidani," "Kapundari" and others are, according to the Article, abolished for ever. The Article goes on to say that all taxes of Rahdari, which till then had been exacted for the guarding and upkeep of roads, are equally abolished, and will never be re-imposed in any form, as road taxes or tolls, except on those carriage roads which are being built, and for which concessions have been granted by a special *firman*.

Each of these taxes has, however, either continued to remain in force, with the consent and knowledge of the Central Government, as well as of every Provincial Governor, or has been re-imposed. Take, for instance, Rahdari, the road tax, which was "abolished for ever." On the road from Bander Abbas to Kerman, on the road from Kerman to Yezd, on the road from Yezd to Bushire are stationed road-guards at various places. Each one of these is a Collector of Rahdari. A portion of the sum collected goes to fill the pockets of those in authority over the road-guards.

The usual custom is for Governors to let out certain posts on the road, or certain stretches of road, to the highest bidder, who, paying cash for his post, becomes a *Tafangchi-bashi* (Commander of Patrols), and collects what he can, no limit being placed on his exactions. At Bushire the Daria Begi farms out the post of *Tafangchi-bashi* at Shief, for, I was given to understand, a sum of 5,000 Tomans, which sum is collected from the *Charvaidars* of caravans. In the same way, Governors and Deputy Governors of towns farm the Octroi, which is exacted alike from incoming and outgoing caravans as in Shiraz. The same holds good, I believe, of every road and every town in Persia.

Things go on as they did before the law was promulgated. The only difference is that these exactions, once legal enough, if annoying, are now illegal and, in view of the considerably enhanced Customs dues, absolutely unjustifiable: also no accounts are now kept of the receipts from these tolls, such as used to be done, and, as a consequence, there can be no control over the exactions of the tax farmer.

Instances of the re-imposition of illegal imposts by direct instructions from Tehran are met with at Bander Abbas.

There the Daria Begi has been ordered to collect, by means of taxes known as "Dalali," "Sarireg," "Askala" and "Kapundari," the sum of 2,500 Tomans. This has been done in the following manner:—

The Deputy Governor of Bander Abbas has farmed out the post of Dalal-bashi, or Chief Broker, to a man called Abdul Latif Ali, who is the agent and nephew of the well-known Muin-ut-Tajar of Bushire, a gentleman at present in Tehran, who from his farm collects between 5,000 and 8,000 Tomans yearly, although the Government receives only 2,500.

The nature of the *dalali* tax is peculiar. The Dalal-bashi has the monopoly of verifying, and, when goods are not brought down on consignment or order, of auctioning articles brought to Bander Abbas or export. On each sale the Dalal-bashi collects a tax or commission, known as *dalali*. For this tax there seems to be no fixed rate. It varies from 2½ per cent. to 10 per cent., according to the inability of the person taxed to protest, and even goes higher than this at times. Not only is the re-introduction of this tax flagrantly illegal, but its incidence has been increased. Originally, before its supposed abolition on the introduction of the present Customs Tariff, ½ per cent. *dalali* used to be collected from one of the parties. Now it is taken, at the enhanced rate, from both the shipper and from the caravan conductor.

In addition to *dalali* are the taxes of—(1) *Askala* or pierage, (2) *Sarireg* or *Maidani*, (3) *Kapundari*.

No. (1) is a tax levied on all goods stored or landed on the pier. This is quite apart from the landing charges and wharfage paid to the Customs, and is collected at the rate of 2⅔ Krans for every 100 packages, irrespective of size.

No. (2) is a tax of quarter of a Kran to Krs. 2 per package, according to size, levied on all goods transported from the Customs premises to the place where the caravans load up in the edge of desert, "Sar-i-Reg."

No. (3) is a tax on the weighment on goods sold and imported into Bander Abbas from the interior, amounting to 2½ per cent, and is collected from the buyer and the shipper.

All these vaxatious imposts are having a bad effect on the export trade, which trade it is necessary for Persia to foster, and most desirable for countries trading with Persia to encourage.

Not only are these taxes illegal and vexatious, but they are supremely wasteful. For every thousand Tomans that Tehran gains from them, Persian subjects have to pay 4,000 or 6,000 Tomans, whilst Persian trade, and consequently the wealth of the country, suffers to an even greater amount.

The matter of these illegal taxes has been taken up by the Consul at Bander Abbas and by the Resident at Bushire. To their representations no reply had, to the end of May, been received, and no ruling issued by His Britannic Majesty's Minister at Tehran. It is very evident that the Persian Government is, in this matter, either extremely hard to move, or that it has not been approached in a proper and sufficiently resolute manner.

His Britannic Majesty's Resident in the Persian Gulf has ruled that the taxes complained of are absolutely illegal, but all the reply the Consul at Bander Abbas gets to his representations to the Deputy Governor is that this Official has no option.

He has his orders from the Central Government at Tehran, and must carry them out, sending in the sums of money demanded of him. The same reply has been given by His Excellency the Daria Begi, the Governor-General of the Gulf Littoral, who showed the Consul his orders signed by the Sadar-i-Azam, the Prime Minister. Of course, British Consuls can only take the matter up so far as it affects the interests of British subjects; in regard to what is done to Persian subjects, foreign Consuls cannot interfere.

Article (3) of the Règlement is perfectly plain, and it is hard to conceive how a branch of the Persian administration can be permitted to issue orders in direct contravention of a solemn treaty concluded between the British and Persian Governments. Treaties between Governments are valueless if subordinate departments can contravene their clauses with impunity.

TRADING CENTRES.

BANDER ABBAS—

Bander Abbas is, perhaps, the best and most conveniently situated port on the Gulf, with the exception of Ahwaz, over which it has the advantage of a shorter sea lead. It is the natural southern outlet of, and entrance for, the trade, not only of South-East Persia, but of the whole of the immense tract of country lying between Herat and Yezd, Meshed and Bampur.

It is in a special sense the seaport of the province of Kerman and Persian Baluchistan, and it ought to be in that province. The transfer of the district of Bander Abbas to Kerman would confer benefits on both alike. I have explained how much the passage of roads across provincial boundaries complicates the problem of ensuring their security. I maintain that if the broad strip of hinterland, in which the roads leading from the Port to Kerman and the interior lie, were handed over to that province, there could be no more divided responsibility, no more shirking of duty, and the task of the Consular authorities at the Port and Kerman would be simplified. The same unification of Government ought, as I have said elsewhere, to be carried out in connection with Consular arrangements; politically, Bander Abbas, if necessary, might still remain, as at present, under Bushire, but with improved means of communication this is doubtful.

There would be nothing revolutionary in this. In ancient times the rulers of Kerman had under their authority the ports of Minab, or Hormozia, and Gambrun, now known as Bander Abbas—although in modern times the port never formed part of Kerman. It must be remembered, however, that it is only within the last 35 years that Bander Abbas has again really formed part of Persia. For over a century the place was ruled by the Sultans of Maskat. It was only in the early sixties of the last century, when the reigning Sultan was too weak to maintain his authority, that Persia resumed control of the port and its customs.

Since that time, unfortunately, no attempt has been made by the Persian Government to secure the proper development of the port and district of Bander Abbas. It has always been feebly governed by a subordinate of the Governor-General of Bushire, the Deputy Governor being sometimes an upper servant, seldom or never a man of any weight.

The Consular arrangements at the Port have been equally unsatisfactory. England, who has for a century, at a considerable sacrifice, enforced peace in the once pirate-haunted waters of the Gulf, a peace that would be broken to-morrow but for the constant police duty done by our watchful gunboats, has only for a comparatively short time been represented in Persia by Consuls. It was only in 1900 that she, who had assisted Shah Abbas to drive the Portuguese out of Hormuz in 1622, thought fit to direct Captain Hunt, of the Indian Political Service, to found a Vice-Consulate at Bander Abbas.

Had not the Bushire-Shiraz route, at the end of the 18th century, been less unsafe than the roads leading into the interior from Bander Abbas, this Port, and not Bushire, would, in all probability, have been the seat of the British Residency. It may yet, however, regain something of its old wealth and glory. It certainly has many more claims to the position and title of the premier Gulf Port than any other.

There is a fairly good roadstead, which could be made into a really good harbour by dredging and the building of a mole, so as to permit of ships riding at anchor well inshore, secure from the surf set up by the south-east wind, with a pier, where goods could be landed with expedition and safety. This last is an absolute necessity. On the Clarence Strait there is a site for a great harbour, which perhaps might be preferred if the difficulties connected with the improvement of the Bander Abbas were found too great. Bushire has not only no harbour, but its two open roadsteads are of such a character that vessels of any tonnage have to anchor a long way out. Bander Abbas is much better suited as a starting point for general traffic over the whole Central and Eastern Persian area than Bushire, which only adventitious circumstances saved from being as much confined to local traffic as Lingah.

Merchandize is exposed to far less risk of damage and loss between its discharge from the caravan and its receipt aboardship, and *vice versâ*, at Bander Abbas than at Bushire.

Transport of goods, in any great quantity, to the interior can be more easily effected from Bander Abbas than from Bushire (though in this direction much improvement is possible). This was proved when the great rush occasioned by the receipt of the material for the construction of the Indo-European Telegraph's Central Persian line had to be met, in 1902-03, by the ports of Ahwaz, Bushire, and Bander Abbas. Mr. King-Wood, Superintendent, reported that the special arrangements made with Messrs. K. Lynch Bros. for the despatch of the Ahwaz consignments turned out a success. The Bushire forwarding market was, however, unable to cope with the strain, and collapsed.

Material was, as a consequence, hung up for months between Bushire and Shiraz, as well as between Shiraz and Yezd. This was eventually got up by the exertions of a special telegraph official. The rest of the material was returned from Bushire and sent to Bander Abbas, which port proved itself capable of handling all that came to it. Though no previous special arrangements had been made for transport, demand brought its own supply, material and stores going up without a hitch to the various depôts between Anar and Bam.

The Kerman report for 1903-04 quotes the rates for 650 lbs. paid for primary carriage from these ports. I extract this quotation—

	R
I.—Mohammera to Ahwaz, Ispahan and Ardistan	65
II.—Bushire to Shiraz, Ispahan and Nain	96
III.—Bushire to Shiraz and Yezd	100
IV.—Bander Abbas to Kerman and Bahramabad	85
V.—Bander Abbas to Bam and Rigan	70

It is astonishing how Bushire, comparative peace and security being once established, ever came to surpass Bander Abbas as a trade-distributing centre. The latter stands at the mouth of one of Persia's natural gates, the former at the foot of a wall. The Bushire-Shiraz road, 170 miles in length, is so steep, and bad, that camels scarcely ever attempt it, whilst it kills the best mules in from two to three years. Mule kafilas ordinarily take from 20 to 30 days to accomplish the journey to Shiraz, but in the grazing season (the spring months), when the animals feed as they go, doing short stages, the journey lasts from 40 to 50 days. Camel caravans cover the distance between Bander Abbas and Kerman, nearly 300 miles, in from 18 to 25 days, and work more cheaply (see suggestions under communications).

At Bander Abbas delays, whose cause I will explain later, are the rule, but they are no worse than those at Bushire, whereas once the goods start, they go on straight to their destination; even now, and with improved communications, heavy articles and other merchandize could be moved rapidly and easily. On the Bushire-Shiraz-Yezd road the caravan leaders or contractors, *charvaidars*, have instituted a system, styled by them "*Dokesh*" or relays, which must be accepted if the merchant or traveller does not wish to pay exhorbitant rates for quicker transport, (see Shiraz), but which does not obtain on the routes from Bander Abbas to the interior.

Owing to lack of grazing, it is impossible to keep large numbers of camels, or other transport animals, at Bander Abbas itself, but there is ample grazing close by. Moreover, there is a comparatively easy way out of the worst of the forage difficulty. Immense quantities of grass are, except in abnormal years, available in Rudbar, within easy reach of Bander Abbas. It would not be difficult to convert this into excellent hay. The hay could be compressed at small cost, and carried down to the port. If the demand there for transport were constant enough, and facilities existed for the rapid despatch of requisitions for animals upcountry, not the slightest difficulty would be experienced, except in the height of summer, in getting all the camel or other transport necessary. The place, for transport purposes, taps an enormous area, and beasts of burden are got from furthest Baluchistan, from Herat, Khorasan and from beyond Ispahan.

At present some difficulty is experienced, chiefly because the demand for transport for the interior has been so precarious, and the exports so small, owing to the famine in South-East Persia. Caravan leaders have preferred to utilize their beasts in local trade on the plateau to going down to Bander Abbas, without loads and running risks from robbers and fever. There are, of course, objections which can, and will be, urged against Bander Abbas. There is, first of all, its climate. This is, during half the year, bad. The place is fiercely hot, and, thanks to the want of sanitation in the town, and to bad water, very feverish. Nevertheless, the climate is no worse than that in which Englishmen live and work, and remain fairly well, in many parts of India, Burma and Africa. It is not very much more trying than the climate of Bushire, and, for the rest, the mountains which rise close behind the town. offer sites for a hill station, such as Bushire can never know. Sanitation, and the bringing of an abundant supply of good, sweet water, which, I am informed, is procurable from a place about 15 miles distant, would improve the health of the town immensely.

It may be urged that the roads leading from Bander Abbas to the various trade centres in the interior are not safe, that traders are liable to be looted by robbers and black mailed by the road-guards. This is unhappily true. Affairs are, however, just as bad on the Bushire-Yezd routes. On hardly any of the Persian roads is the safety of travellers and merchandize properly insured.

Under "Matters Consular," "Communications," and "Customs" I have made certain suggestions which if, even partly carried out, would result in a considerable improvement in the state of affairs.

Time, reflection, and determination will remove most of the drawbacks from which Bander Abbas suffers, and the modernising and development of the Port, together with the development of the immense region of which it is the mouth, will spell great things for Persia, bringing, as they will, wealth to the Shah and his subjects.

Before Bander Abbas can be properly developed, there must be—

I.—Harbour improvement.

II.—Improvements in the town, sanitation, and the introduction of a plentiful supply of sweet water.

III.—Assurance of safety for traders over the trade roads to the interior and improvements in roads and means of transport.

IV.—Provision of Telegraphic communication (a land line to Kerman or Bam and a connection with the cable at Henjam).

V.—Improvement in the Postal Service.

VI.—Improvement of those bad portions of the present roads to the interior that lie between the low country and the plateau.

VII.—Organization of Transport supply, to do away with delays that now occur in the procuring of animals.

VIII.—The enlargement and improvement of the Custom House premises and the building of Bonded Warehouses. A reform in the Customs staff, and its methods, combined with greater secrecy and despatch in the carrying out of Customs business, and greater immunity from loss for goods and traders. Last, but not least, the fixing of responsibility for loss of, or damage to, goods whilst in charge of the Customs authorities, and between the ship and the Customs wharf.

Most of these necessary improvements and reforms have been noticed under their own heads. It is sincerely to be hoped that they will be carried out, if not immediately, at least before any great length of time has elapsed. It is, however, somewhat doubtful if they will be carried out, unless the Government of India, which has already done so much magnificent work in the Persian Gulf, goes a step farther, and induces the Shah's Government to see their own true interests, and thus secure their hearty assent and co-operation.

The consideration of the potentialities of Bander Abbas, as well as the suggestion of reforms, is pleasanter than the description of the present unsatisfactory condition of the place.

The population of Bander Abbas fluctuates between something less than 5,000 and something over 8,000. This fluctuation is due to unhealthiness, arising from dirt and lack of drainage, and to the want of good drinking water, and, most of all, to the fact that there is an off season, when trade, brisk in spring, winter and autumn, stagnates when there is no demand for the interior, and when few or no Kafilas come down from upcountry. Bander Abbas is almost deserted between June and September, the majority of the inhabitants going off to fertile Minab, about 50 miles away to the East, or into the hills, from one to two days' march off, where, at an elevation of 5,000 feet good water is plentiful, and gardens and villages are to be found : all this is capable of easy alteration.

There is some coasting trade done by native craft from the Port, both up and down the Gulf, also across to the Arab Coast, whilst there is large export business in oxides and salt from Hormuz and Kishm. In 1903 the export of oxides was 6,000 tons, and of salt, most of which went to India, 4,000 tons.

The British India steamers of the "slow line" call twice a week at Bander Abbas, once on their way up the Gulf, and once when returning to Bombay. The "fast line" mail boats ought also to call at the Port, for, if development in trade is to be anticipated, the Port ought to be given every possible assistance in communications, and not be penalised as it now is. Steamers of other lines also constantly put in to the Port to take and discharge cargo.

Customs.—There are a few details of Customs administration, seemingly peculiar to this Port, which I will now deal with—

The difficulty attending the settlement of claims for shortage and damage is considerable. This difficulty arises from the peculiar and complicated method of excising and clearing cargo which obtains here. Little difficulty is experienced in the case of freight secured in Bombay, in which case landing charges are annexed to freight charges in the Bill of Lading. In the case of goods coming from elsewhere, this simple method is not adopted, and these charges are billed for after arrival. The Agent's Tally clerk signs on board for cargo delivered, and a Customs subordinate, styled the *Hamal-bashi*, or Chief Porter, signs for goods at the Customs House. Later on, when goods are being cleared on the Delivery Order of the Landing Agent, claims for shortage or damage often arise, and then comes the difficulty of fixing responsibility, for none can say what has occurred *en route* between the ship and jetty, and who is responsible.

The *Hamal-bashi* here is an interested functionary of indefinite powers and varied duties. He is Customs Store-keeper, Chief Preventitive Officer, Detective, Deputy Director, and what not. He also farms his post, as is usual in Persia, for a monthly payment, which at present varies from R650 to R700, part of which goes to the Governor.

The man, who held the post of *Hamal-bashi* when I was in Bander Abbas, had also, it was stated, paid a lump sum in cash, partly to the Customs Department, and partly to the Governor, for the post. I was unable to learn the amount paid, but it, together with the monthly rent for his farm, seems more than the post ought to be worth, considering the fees that the *Hamal-bashi* is officially entitled to receive. Yet the post must be lucrative, for the *Hamal-bashi* wore an exceedingly prosperous look. He had been the servant of his predecessor, who had died not long before, and previous to that a much unappreciated waiter aboard H. M. S. *Lapwing*. He seemed an exceedingly intelligent and shrewd man, and doubtless knew the value of his post better than anyone else.

General complaint was made by all traders and agents at the port that the *Hamal-bashi* and the Armenian Clerks in the Custom House get to know too much of the contents of confidential business documents. They also added that, though the wholesale robberies and pilfering of goods in transit through the Customs had moderated since the Belgians took charge, a good deal still went on, for which it was impossible to get satisfaction.

It is satisfactory to be able to record that certain outsiders who claimed a right of occupancy of some buildings in the old Dutch Factory (now the

Custom House) have been evicted, and their claims dismissed. No doubt this will decrease, to a certain extent, the pilfering that used to take place. These Customs godowns are commodious, but that is all. They are so badly arranged in every respect as to be virtually impossible of access. Goods that ought to be warehoused are, in consequence, often left lying in the courtyards. In addition, the ventilation of the godowns is so bad, and they are so infested with vermin, that any goods of a perishable nature cannot be stored in them, for more than a very short time, without great loss. It would perhaps be as well if the Customs authorities were to see that the provision of Article 69 of the Règlements Legal were put in force without further delay. Bonded Warehouses are very badly wanted here.

Insurance.—Nearly all goods coming from Europe are insured to land. Occasionally, but only occasionally, insurance is effected to destination inland. Native exporters seldom insure, but, when they do, the Insurance Companies only accept responsibility when goods arrive on boardship.

Trade.—Almost the entire trade of Bander Abbas is with the interior, there being little or no local business transacted, except when Herati Kafilas come down with wool, assafœtide, etc., and purchase necessities in return. Merchandise comes from and goes to Tehran and Yezd on the west, Kerman and its districts in the centre, and Seistan and Khorasan on the east. There is a small trade still with Lar, though there is no longer any through traffic with Shiraz by the Lar route.

There are Agents of Messrs. Gray, Paul & Co., who are also the British India Agents, and of Messrs. Zeigler & Co. at Bander Abbas. There are some 50 Hindu traders, a very few of whom deal on their own account, the majority being Agents or Representatives of Shikarpur (Sind) Mahajan Firms; these generally remain during the winter only. Arbab Jamshed, the leading Parsee Merchant of Tehran, and the Persian Company "Shirket Umumi," have also Agents at the Port. There are some Persian merchants trading on their own account, but the number is decreasing. The presence of European representatives of firms is most necessary. As soon as we have them, progress will ensue.

Traders consign to partners or to agents up country, and receive their return in produce, or in drafts on houses in India. Most of the business of Bander Abbas consists, however, in commission and forwarding agency work. The majority of the import trade is worked by indents to Agents at Bombay, who buy there for cash against Bills of Lading. Merchants in this part of Persia, whether Musalmans, Parsees or Hindus, have not yet grasped the importance of the idea of dealing direct with the producer, instead of through one or more middlemen. I have done my utmost to educate them on this point.

Complications are sometimes caused by the arrival of goods in Bander Abbas before the receipt of documents by importers or agents at the port. The establishment of a Bank and improvements in postal and telegraphic communications will greatly help matters, and I think will develop trade.

The trade of the port, as shown by Customs and Consular returns, for the last three years was valued at—

	1902.	1903.	1204.
Imports	£399,291	£449,145	£317,808
Exports	£97,331	£138,632	£122,166

N.B.—These figures are taken from the Consular Reports, and are not Custom House figures.

There is a difference in figures given in Consular reports and in Custom House returns. This discrepancy is due to the tendency of Consular Officers to value goods at a higher rate than the Customs Officials. The reason for this is not very evident, still it is certain that if Consular Officers over-estimate, in many instances, the value of our trade, the Customs Officials under-estimate it. Whether Russian imports are valued very exactly is a question which it is impossible for me to answer, now that taxation is no longer on values. Some explanation for the startling falling off in British trade, and the equally startling increase in Russian trade, with Persia, shown in the latest available figures, may be found in this difference in estimating. Decrease in trade may also be accounted for by an increase in the smuggling trade, run from the Arab coast to a hundred small villages on the Persian coast.

Transport.—Bander Abbas kafilas are chiefly composed of camels or donkeys, mules being very seldom used, except by officials or travellers wishing to proceed rapidly, and these have to be specially arranged for, from Yezd as a rule, few or none being procurable at the bunder or other places. There is no difficulty in procuring camels in the winter, or at other times, provided due notice be given, but something better than this is wanted.

As I have already said, the port can draw transport from over an immense area.

A camel carries 450 lbs. It costs, if bought, from R50 to R120, whilst the average price for a mule, a small transport animal, is from R165 to R200. A camel is practically self-supporting, whilst the food of a mule needs nearly as much attention and expenditure as that of a horse. Taking the cost of hiring a mule at R5, that of hiring a camel would be R3, and that of donkey, which carries about 160. lbs., R2. The connection of Bander Abbas with Kerman or Bam by land wire, and improvement in the safety of the roads, would do away with most of the causes of the delay at Bander Abbas. It takes 9 or 10 days from Bombay to Bander Abbas, whilst the average time in transit from that port to Kerman is from 18 to 25, or a total of 27 to 35 days, in addition to the average time lost through various causes at Bander Abbas of 3 weeks to 2 months. This uncertainty as to how long goods will be in transit from the port, inland, has a most serious effect on trade, for it is impossible to calculate so as to avoid depletion of stocks, except at a considerable cost, and consequent loss, *i.e.*, by having to keep heavy stocks ordered far in advance, necessitating the locking up of money whilst goods are in transit. This means a heavy handicap against British trade in competing with trade from across the Russian Frontier, with its quicker transit.

TRADE ROUTES.—

Reference to Skeleton Map—

Route No.	1	Bander Abbas to Khorasan and Seistan *viâ* Minab.
„ „	2	Bander Abbas to Kerman (winter route).
„ Nos.	2 & 2A	Alternative route, Bander Abbas to Khorasan and Seistan *viâ* Minab, uniting with main road at Mil-i-Farhad, south of Gishu Pass.
„ „	2 & 2B	Bander Abbas to Bam.
„ No.	3	Bander Abbas to Kerman (summer route).
„ „	4	Bander Abbas to Saiadabad and Bahramabad *viâ* the Tang-i-Zindan.
„ Nos.	4 & 5	Bander Abbas to Saiadabad and Bahramabad *viâ* the Tang-i-Zagh.
„ „	4 & 4B	Bander Abbas to Yezd *viâ* Saiadabad and Anar.
„ No.	6	Bander Abbas to Yezd *viâ* Hormuz and Furg.
„ „	7	Bander Abbas to Shiraz *viâ* Lar.
„ „	8	Bander Abbas to Bushire.

SAIADABAD (SIRJAN)—

Saiadabad, the chief town of Sirjan, one of the divisions of the Kerman Province, is situated at the lower end of the valley of the great Kavir, or salt marsh, which stretches north to Ispahan. Saiadabad, like all the towns of this country, has suffered severely at the hands of Afghans, Turkomans and Persians. The present town was built near the site of, and partly from material got from, the ruins of Shahr-be-Umedi, the City of Despair, which itself had grown up gradually not far from the site of a still earlier town, Sang-i-Safed, destroyed, in his usual thorough manner by Timur, the lame Tartar.

The town stands in the midst of an oasis in the valley. It is the largest of a widely scattered group of townlets and villages. Its population, urban and suburban, is reckoned at about 9,000. The population of the oasis is placed at about 150,000, including Nomads. These figures are only approximate, it being impossible to get exact ones.

There is at Saiadabad a Custom's post, for the prevention of the smuggling trade in arms. There is also a Post Office, the town being on the Bander Abbas-Rafsinjan postal and caravan route.

The Sirjan Oasis produces rice, cereals and cotton, and the Saiadabad traders handle large quantities of gum tragacanth, walnuts, almonds, pistachios, (of an exceptionally fine quality) and madder, produced in and brought down from the mountains.

Trade.—The surplus of rice and cereals grown in Sirjan is exported mainly to Yezd, where there is always a demand, that district not producing sufficient food crops for its needs. Cotton, however, is produced in a quantity sufficient only for home consumption, there being, at present, no spare water for extended cultivation after food crops have been attended to.

Export.—The export trade consists entirely of almonds, pistachios, gum tragacanth, madder, nuts and Nomad rugs.

Imports.—The import trade is heavy for the size of the place, and comprises tea, sugar (French loaf, Austrian and Egyptian crystals), cotton fabrics, yarns and twists, from the United Kingdom, India and Russia, spices, entirely from India, iron, copper and steel,—English for the most part, India supplying some,—dates and limes, from the low country.

Imports of foreign goods consist for the most part of indent purchases made in Bander Abbas, Kerman and Yezd, few or no direct orders being sent to India or Great Britain. Russian Agents, working from Yezd, have been trying hard to push their goods. The success that has so far attended their efforts has been but limited and spasmodic. Despite the discounts given, they cannot compete here with British goods in price or quality. They have, so far, only got in when, as happened in 1901, the Kerman market (from which Saiadabad usually derives its supplies) was depleted, and owing to lack of telegraphic communication goods could not be got up from Bander Abbas in time to satisfy the demand. A telegram to Yezd from Kerman, or Bahramabad, brought the instant despatch of the Russian goods wanted.

Industries.—Nomad rugs, and a very coarse cotton cloth, is manufactured, about 100,000 mètres being woven and used yearly, *Givehs*, or cotton shoes, felt *kullahs* or hats, brimless and of stew-pot shape, coarse blankets of camel and goats' hair, are the only manufactures.

The trade methods and credits of Saiadabad are the same as those obtaining at Kerman. The average rate of interest demanded from debtors ranges, however, about 1 per cent. higher than Kerman.

TRADE ROUTES—

Reference to Skeleton Map—

Route No.	4	Saiadabad to Bander Abbas *viâ* Tang-i-Zindan.
„	„ 5	Saiadabad to Bander Abbas *viâ* Tang-i-Zagh.
„	„ 9	Saiadabad to Kerman.
„	„ 4	Saiadabad to Bahramabad.
„	„ 4 B	Saiadabad to Yezd.

BAHRAMABAD (RAFSINJAN)—

Bahramabad, the principal town in the Rafsinjan Division, and the seat of the Governor, is situated, roughly, in the centre of a group of villages dotted over a fertile oasis in the stony valley of Rafsinjan. It lies on the main road between Tehran and Kerman, and stands at the Kerman end of it, at about one-third of the distance between Kerman and Yezd.

The Central Persian Section of the Indo-European Telegraph line runs through Bahramabad, but has no office here, a want badly felt, their nearest office being at Anar, 35 miles distant. There is a Persian Telegraph Office in the place (see my remarks under the head of "Telegraphs").

The population of the Rafsinjan District is stated to be between 60,000 and 70,000, that of the Capital being 9,000.

TRADE—

Exports.—Wheat, barley, millet, opium and cotton are the chief products of the oasis. The surplus food-stuffs are sent, for the most part, to Kerman

About 3,000 Kharvars, or 1,964,100 lbs., of raw, semi-cleaned, cotton are produced yearly in Rafsinjan, of which 500 Kharvars are used for local industries and trade. The rest is exported, chiefly to Russia through Shahrud, very little, perhaps a tenth, finding its way to Bander Abbas, despite the fact that carriage to Shahrud costs more than to the Bander, and that the journey takes longer to accomplish.

The Rafsinjan cotton growers and exporters are not financed in any way beforehand by Russian Agents, as the Khorasan wool-sellers are, cotton being sent to Shahrud on consignment sale. The outbreak of the Russo-Japanese War, and the commercial crisis and disturbance in Russia, caused a certain cessation of demand last year and the year before, and, as a consequence, quantities of cotton remained unsold at Shahrud. This caused much hardship to cultivators and traders in Rafsinjan, many small men going bankrupt. The Bahramabad traders also handle assafœtida, nearly all of which goes to India; madder, and gum tragacanth, mainly to England; pistachios and almonds, to other Persian towns, England and India; also a limited number of skins, of which some go to Bombay and the rest to the Arab Coast.

Imports.—The imports consist of cotton fabrics and prints; grey and white shirtings, yarns and twist from England, India and Russia, flowered muslins, French and Swiss silks, and also native made silks; Tea, Lamsar and Indian, in the proportion of nine-tenths Lamsar to one-tenth Indian; sugar, French loaf, Austrian bagged (Russian sugar has had no success here); kerosine oil, Russian; candles, mainly Belgian; spices, India; iron, steel and copper, from England chiefly, a small quantity coming from India; glassware, cutlery, etc., with fancy articles, mostly Austrian and German; Russian tea glasses, with French or Austrian saucers; samovars, chiefly from Russia, a few coming from India (Bombay).

Trade usages and credits.—Trade usages and credits in Rafsinjan are the same as those in Kerman and Saiadabad. Trade and traders in Bahramabad seem brisker than they are in the chief town of Sirjan, some of the Parsee traders being partners of firms, having their head-quarters in Tehran, and branches in Shiraz, Yezd and Kerman. There is also an Armenian firm, who watch Russian interests, and who are heavy buyers of cotton.

Cotton cultivation could be extended in Rafsinjan if demand were to increase. I do not think any increased demand will come from India, the cotton, in Rafsinjan and Sirjan alike, being too short in staple to be of much use to Indian mills, and too expensive, quality for quality, for importation.

A certain amount of trouble and engineering skill would, however, result in a very great enlargement of the cultivable area of Rafsinjan. About 15 miles to the north of Bahramabad, on the skirt of the range bounding the valley on that side, there is an opening into an underground river, the Chah-i-Daria. This consists, to quote from Major Sykes, of a circular hole, nine feet in diameter, with a steep incline, which leads down to a smaller, crater-like opening, oval in shape, measuring 20 feet by 10. This opening is 20 feet below the surface. Big stones rolled in from the surface take five seconds to reach the water. The river is deep, and the current strong. The Chah is close to the caravan track and a camping place. Grazing camels constantly stray into the pit and fall into the river; all trace of the beasts is lost after that: they are swept away absolutely. This river might be tapped for irrigating purposes.

TRADE ROUTES—

Reference to skeleton map—

Route No.	13 A.	Bahramabad to Yezd.
„ „	13 A_b	Bahramabad to Kerman.
„ „	4	Bahramabad to Saiadabad.
„ „	13 A and 13 AB	Bahramabad to Shahrud *viâ* Bam.

KERMAN—

When Ispahan, then a magnificent city, was the Capital of Persia, and the great towns of Hormuz, Kerman and Tabriz were situated on the main

Indo-European trade route, Kerman was, in wealth and importance, the second city in the Empire. It has long resigned that proud position.

The reduced condition of the city is due to a combination of causes. In the first place, owing to continuous wars and disturbances in Persia; secondly, to the rounding of the Cape, which ultimately drove the trade with the East (greatly to the loss of Persia, Venice and Genoa) from the land route to the sea, and killed what was virtually a monopoly; lastly, to the fact that the city has been taken and sacked several times. The last occasion, now over a century ago, was when Agha Mohamed, Kajar, the founder of the present Persian Dynasty, sacked the city. The ruin he made was so complete that Kerman lay desolate for years. The brutal conqueror began a general massacre of the people, and only a tribute of 20,000 pairs of human eyes, which he had counted before him, prevented his exterminating the population. He also sold 20,000 women and children into slavery.

The first attempt to restore the city from its moribund condition was made in 1801 by the then Governor, Ibrahim Khan, Kajar, who ruled the district, wisely and well, for 24 years.

The present town, standing in the midst of ruins, is small and poor, as compared with its predecessors; it is, however, growing in area and population. The present population, according to more or less untrustworthy Persian official accounts, numbers between 90,000 and 100,000. The British Consul's estimate, however, halves these figures.

Though two other Governors, Mohammed Ali Khan and Murtaza Kuli Khan, during the last century, did much for Kerman, the people unfortunately did little indeed. The succession of misfortunes from which their fathers suffered seems to have deprived the sons of all energy. Even as the inhabitants of Yezd are proverbial for loquacity and cowardice, so the Kermanis have become proverbial for indolence. This is not astonishing perhaps, as living is cheap in the town and province generally.

The dry, bracing climate is charming and free from extremes, except in unusually severe winters, such as that during the period of our visit, when, at the end of January, the Kerman bazars were closed for 10 days, traders and other refusing to stir out of their houses, because of the great cold, and when many, in city and country alike, were frozen to death.

Beggars abound to such an extent that Kerman is known as the city of beggars. The fact, that every official squeezes all he can get out of the people, and the Mullahs and Saiads are not to be denied, prevents surprise at the Kerman of to-day not being more prosperous than it is.

Again, few of the Governors attempt to carry out their duties, and money that ought to go to the improvement and safeguarding of the territories entrusted to their care is diverted to other uses.

People of all classes spend what money is spared to them freely, and there is, in consequence, a fairly large import trade, which could certainly be increased so far as India is concerned. It is impossible to get reliable figures of imports, as no account is now kept of the entry of caravans of goods and no statistics are available. At one time all caravans entering the city gates paid octroi, the charge being roughly calculated according to the weight of loads carried, the caravan conductor having to pay 4 Krans for each camel or horse load, 2 Krans for each mule or pony load, and for every donkey load 1 Kran, animals of the greatest weight-carrying capacity paying most. Some account of the nature and quality of goods imported was also kept. All this has been stopped now.

Trade.—The trade of Kerman is, with the exception of carpets, almost entirely in the hands of the Shikarpur Hindus, who are also money-lenders and Bankers, and the few Parsee families, who have survived the murderous persecution of the first three quarters of the last century. Both classes are less addicted to opium and other ruinous vices than their Muhammadan fellow townsmen. They are also possessed of a greater natural aptitude for business.

The Muhammadans, with few exceptions, confine their trading to petty local products, or commodities locally purchased. The import trade is

entirely in the hands of Hindus and Parsees, with the exception of the trade in tea and sugar, where they have a few Muhammadan competitors. The export trade is mainly conducted by Shikarpuris and a few of the Parsees, whilst the carpet trade is almost entirely in the hands of Tabrizi Turks.

The neighbourhood of Yězd, where the merchants are much more capable and energetic than those of Kerman, also militates against the commercial advance of the Capital of this ancient Bactrian province. Yet, if the Kermanis only cared to, they could build up a very profitable export trade in wool, gums and possibly minerals. Kerman produces about the best wool in Persia, the growth of a special breed of short-legged sheep, which Fath Ali Shah, successor of Agha Mohammed, tried, without success, to introduce into other parts of his Empire. There used, at one time, to be a large export trade in wool, but this has now disappeared. The hills near Kerman abound in gums and minerals, and much wealth could be won therefrom by an energetic people and an enlightened Government.

The trade horizon, in the beginning of 1905, presented hopeful signs, but the year previous was a bad one for Kerman. During the whole of that year the carpet trade, owing to over-production, coupled with dishonest work, which caused wholesale rejections, was inactive.

All carpets and rugs made for the open market are paid for while still on the loom, and when delivered to buyers are sent by caravan to Tabriz, where lots are sent on to Consatinople for distribution. In both Tabriz and Constantinople large consignments remained unsold thoughout the year. Carpet making being Kerman's staple, and almost sole industry, all other trade was sympathetically dull.

This was serious, coming as it did on the top of two bad years, and the situation were still further complicated by the fall in exchange of the value of the Kran, as compared with the rupee. The rupee value was already unusually high in March 1904, being Krans 337½ per ₹100, but by the end of December the rate had gone up to Krans 418½ per ₹100. In the beginning of 1905, exchange fluctuated between 418 and 420 Krans. This rise in the value of the rupee is attributed to the commercial crisis in Russia, caused by the war in Manchuria. However this may be, the rise contributed to increase the slackness of trade. Exports to India from South-Eastern Persia are too small to set off against imports from India, and importers, having to do nearly all their payments in cash, felt the fall in the value of the Kran to the full.

How severe the effect of this combined stagnation of trade and depreciation in exchange was, is shown by the fact that, whilst the price of carpets dropped from 50 to 60 per cent. the price of imported commodities rose from 30 to 40 per cent. The cholera in October hit Kerman trade still another blow, and many bankruptcies occurred amongst traders and carpet-makers.

Indian exporters were not, however, benefited by the rise in the value of the rupee. The paucity of imports from Persia left them unable to effect any saving in banking commission on the return of funds. Neither did they derive any benefit from the cheapened market such as they would have had, had they been able to make substantial purchases of Persian wool, cotton and gums, etc. The only persons who did benefit were the Tabriz Turks, who, seeing an approaching improvement in the carpet market, and taking advantage of the extremity to which the Kermanis had been reduced, bought heavily, in October and November, at prices which were below the cost of production.

The Imperial Bank of Persia opened a branch, which is subordinate to that of Yezd, in Kerman in 1904. This branch bank is already beginning to attract business, and is rapidly gaining the confidence of the natives. It has also had a steadying effect on local exchange rates, which had been highly unsatisfactory, as well as having a salutary effect on the transactions of native money-lenders. There is a good demand in Kerman for tea, sugar, bright prints, grey and white shirtings, twist and yarns, Indian spices, copper sheets, steel billets and bar-iron, candles and kerosine oil, also for cheap, flash ware, chiefly made in Germany and Austria, as well as for trays, glass-ware

crockery, knives, etc. A demand could, without doubt, be created for woollen and leather goods, and a limited amount of aluminium ware, all of which must be moderately priced, but good, if they are to compete successfully with articles brought into the market by Russian agents.

There is no reason why India, which has so many advantages where this market is concerned, should not shortly supply many of the articles which now come from the Continent and England. Merchants and manufacturers in India, however, must study the tastes of the people, and ascertain whether or not they can give Persia what she wants; all other means will fail unless this is done, as the Persians are most conservative people.

Export.—With the exception of carpets and shawls, there is no export trade from Kerman worth speaking of. It is a distributing centre for Khabis, Bam and at times Saiadabad and Bahramabad, but this could not be correctly called an export trade, as it is merely a passing on of goods imported.

Trade Customs and "Credits."—The financing of trade is a simple matter in Kerman. Importers generally get goods out direct from India, paying for them by cash against documents. These goods are sent up from the Port either by agents or partners. Some of the Persian merchants make their purchases from importers at Bander Abbas, paying them generally half in cash and the remainder after a month or six weeks. In the case of local traders, or traders in out-towns, purchasing from Kerman importers, a slightly different procedure is followed. It varies somewhat, too, with individual cases, a man of high commercial morality being allowed, for instance, to keep a running account with the importer, or being given long credits at a low rate of interest. As a general rule, however, the purchaser pays half the price in cash or kind (for barter is frequent), and gives a bill for the remainder. The periods allowed for the maturing of these bills vary considerably, *e.g.*, from 30 days to 12 months, the average being from 3 to 4 months. Sometimes when bills fall due they are taken up at once; in other cases, however, payment is made after a peculiar fashion, the debtor clearing off one-tenth of the amount weekly, and the creditor charging interest on the *whole* amount for the period of 10 weeks.

Interest on loans, advances, and outstandings by native traders always means compound interest. The rates vary from 24 per cent. per annum to 120 per cent. The Bank rate is 18 per cent. Of course the shroffs lend at low rate sometimes, when, as does occasionally happen, gentle pressure is put upon them by a Persian Official, whom they know it will pay to please, or when they see some other advantage for themselves, and their rates for transfers and exchange also occasionally compare favourably with those obtaining in the Bank.

Industries.—The principal indigenous industry of Kerman, district and town alike, is the manufacture of carpets and shawls, but this even has suffered seriously from Indian and European competition. Kerman still, however, makes the best carpets in Persia, and the shawls that are produced to fill special orders are of wonderful quality, though behind the best produce of the looms of Kashmir and Rampur.

The manufacture of match and flint-locks, for which Kerman was once famous, and which as late as 1872 brought much money into the city, has ceased. These weapons used to find their way into Bokhara, Afghanistan, the Northern Persian Provinces and Arabia. Now all the Persian Nomads, as well as the Arabs, Afghans and Pathan tribes, prefer to arm themselves with weapons of the latest pattern, or as near as they can get, made in Belgium, Germany and England. Other smaller industries, such as the manufacture of attar of roses and tiles of great beauty and fine quality have also disappeared.

To-day nothing is made worth mentioning but carpets. A little cotton and woollen cloth, Persian saddles, pottery, a poor class of leather goods, cotton shoes, spades, hoes, etc., of wood and iron, copper cooking and water pots are also manufactured on a small scale. Except for carpet weaving, the arts are neglected, and handicraftsmanship is in a very low state and dying out.

Customs.—There is a Director of Customs in Kerman, who has under his control posts in that town, in Sirjan, Rafsinjan and Bam, and who is also in charge of the collection of Imperial Revenue. The Customs frontier posts in Persian Baluchistan might be enumerated here. These were—seven under the Seistan Director—Koh-i-Malik-Siah, Duzdap, Mirjawa, Anandi, Muscata (near Jalk), Isfandak and Kuhak; two under the Bunder Abbas directorate—Pishin and Gwattar. All frontier posts have now been closed, with the exception of Koh-i-Malik-Siah, as their working resulted in considerable loss.

Transport.—Camels, mules and donkeys between Kerman and all places, except Khabis, the road to which is impassable for camels. Numbers of mules are used on the Yezd-Kerman main route.

TRADE ROUTES—

Reference to Skeleton Map—

Route No. 3 . .	Kerman to Bander Abbas (summer route).
" „ „ 2 . .	Kerman to Bander Abbas (*Winter route*).
„ „ 13 B . .	Kerman to Bam, Bampur and Chahbar (direct route).
„ Nos. 2 and 13 B .	Kerman to Bam, Bampur and Chahbar *viâ* Raiin.
„ No. 9 . .	Kerman to Khabis and on to Khorasan and Seistan.
„ „ 12 . .	Kerman to Meshed *viâ* Rawar.
„ „ 9 . .	Kerman to Saiadabad.
„ „ 13 B . .	Kerman to Bahramabad and Yezd.

KHABIS—

Khabis is an oasis lying between the Kuh-i-Pia Range of mountains and the great Persian desert of the Lut, which stretches from 28° to 35° North, and from the centre of Persia to Khorasan and Seistan. The place is cool and healthy, except for the three or four months of summer, during 40 days of which the deadly desert wind, the Bad-i-Simum, blows from the direction of Khorasan. During four months Khabis is nearly deserted, most of the inhabitants retiring to the highlands, leaving just a few behind to guard the houses and gardens.

The fertile and well-watered oasis is covered with gardens and lemon, orange and date groves, also with fields of rice and henna. It offers a striking contrast to the majestic, but barren, mountains that stand behind it to the west, and to the dreary wastes that surround it on every other side.

Scattered through the oasis are about 50 villages, the largest of which, a small town standing near the ruins of the Afghan town and fort of Khabis, gives its name to the whole district. The winter population of the district numbers about 15,000, of whom 5,000 dwell in the town of Khabis itself.

Trade.—There are no regular traders in Khabis, though there is a steady export trade of the principal products of the place,—dates, lemons and lime juice, oranges and orange juice and henna,—and an import trade in grain from Khorasan. With the exception of grain, all necessaries are got from Kerman, being generally purchased in the bazaars there, or from petty shopkeepers, who visit the place for about six months in the year.

Of henna, between 30,000 to 40,000 lbs. are sent to Khorasan, and some 270,000 lbs. to Yezd. Of dates, some, 1,110,000 lbs., representing the produce of some 6,200 date palms (each tree yielding on an average 180 lbs.) are produced annually in the district, 810,000 lbs. being exported to Afghanistan, Khorasan and Yezd. The trade is mostly barter, grain being taken in exchange when it is dear in the district, and cheap in Khorasan. When, however, grain is dear in Khorasan, and cheap in Khabis, money changes hands.

Communications.—Goods intended for Khorasan and Afghanistan go *viâ* Birjand, where they are transhipped and sent on to Meshed and Herat. The cost of transport between Birjand and Khabis is 6 Tomans per kharvar. The trade to Seistan is direct, *viâ* Neh to Nasaratabad, and the cost is 10 Tomans per kharvar. The Khorasan and Seistan routes bifurcate in the Lut, at a low watershed known as Gudar Bint. The road between Kerman and Khabis

is a very difficult one, even for mules and donkeys, who cannot carry full loads over the Anjir Pass, 6,950 feet, which is absolutely impassable for camels. At no very great cost a better and shorter road could be made, avoiding the steep kotal above mentioned. This would be doubly advantageous, as it would give Kerman the benefit of a direct caravan route to Khorasan and Seistan. The diversion to avoid the kotal would run from Kerman, in a north-east direction, to Sir Assiab, then to Bander Assiab, then to Bander Husainabad and so, under the Anjir Pass, along the river bed, direct to Khabis. All that is necessary is the making of a short road connecting two ravines.

TRADE ROUTES—

Reference to Skeleton Map—

Route No. 9	Khabis to Kerman.
„ Nos. 10 and 13 B . . .	Khabis to Bam.
„ No. 9	Khabis to Khorasan and Seistan.

GOK—

Gok, lying on the hill road from Khabis to Bam, *viâ* Tehrud, is a fertile place, being a valley lying in a barren waste of hills. It supplies Kerman and Bam with quantities of excellent raisins. The average annual production of the district is 800,000 lbs., of which 150,000 lbs. go to Bam, most of this being sent on to Bander Abbas and 180,000 lbs. to Kerman, whence much of it is sent on to Yezd. There is also a considerable local trade in pomegranates and tobacco with Kerman.

BAM—

Bam, the chief town of the Bam and Narmashir District, is situated in a very fertile valley. The inhabitants, from Khans to labourers, are much more comfortably off than are the people in any other part of South-Eastern Persia. Given fair play in the matter of government and of opportunities for development, the district of Bam-Narmashir, which possesses great possibilities, ought to become, as it once was, according to report, a rich commercial centre.

Bam is the last Commercial town between Kerman and Quetta. Its position, about half the distance of Kerman from the port of Bander Abbas, should enable it to become the supply depôt for the wide districts surrounding it, including Persian Baluchistan and even Seistan. Well watered and fertile now, the productive power of the district could be increased many-fold by scientific irrigation. In this, and the adjacent districts of Jiruft, Rudbar and Minab, lie the brightest prospects of developing the productiveness, and so increasing the wealth and importing power of South-East Persia. Wool, cotton, gums, dye stuffs, assafœtida, and other products could be secured in abundance, and their number added to.

In cotton especially these districts could assist India and themselves. Here, in what is known as the Garm-Sir, the summers are long, and irrigation would ensure a good water-supply. If good American, Egyptian, or even Bombay, seed were imported and sown, great quantities of first class cotton could be raised for the Indian market. This, considering the steadily increasing tightness, owing to the cotton ring in America, that has existed in the cotton market for the last three years, a tightness that is not likely to decrease, now that the American growers are planning to reduce output by 25 per cent., is a matter to which I would earnestly draw the attention of Indian cotton spinners and weavers, and the example of England in West Africa might, as far as circumstances will allow, be followed here and in the Karun Valley.

The production and export of wool, which is now moderate, could be increased considerably. At one time there used to be a large export trade in wool from this part of the country, but, for various reasons, not the least important of which have been successive years of drought, and the great increase in the manufacture of carpets in the immediate past, there has been a falling off in export. To the former of these can be put down the falling off

in production, as want of grazing did great damage to the sheep. The major portion of the raw wool export trade is with the London market, shipments being made through Bombay. Why this should be so, when the supply of wool in India is far from being equal to the demand, it is difficult to understand.

The greater part of the wealth of the people of Bam and the neighbouring districts is derived from henna, which is produced in great quantities and exported to Kerman and Yezd, where it is ground and prepared for the market. Henna is used largely by Muhammadans for toilet purposes, either alone or mixed with indigo. Alone it produces a reddish yellow colour, and mixed with indigo a deep blue-black.

Bam, or rather Narmashir and Khabis, supply practically all Persia with henna, for the quality of the dye is so superior that they nearly monopolise the market. The trade is a very profitable one, but henna is a very expensive crop to raise, needing great quantities of water and heavy manuring, hence its cultivation is limited.

There is also a large trade in dates, which, besides forming one of the principal local food crops, are exported to Bander Abbas, Kerman and Yezd. The Baluch tribesmen also bring great quantities of dates for sale and barter when they come into Bam to do their periodical marketings.

Trade.—The trade of Bam is divided almost equally between the Parsees and Muhammadans. The Parsees have, of late years, especially since the advent in the place of an energetic agent representing the great Tehran firm of Arbab Jamshed, gained a considerable advantage over the Muhammadans, who have not increased their natural lack of enterprise and energy by the consumption of opium. So far no Hindu trader has operated in Bam, except from Kerman. It is certain, however, that, now the newly appointed British Agent has arrived, one or two Shikarpuri agents will open business premises in the town.

Trade Customs and Credits.—Business customs in Bam are the same as in Kerman, through which town the greater part of the import trade is still carried on, and the credits resemble those given in Bahramabad and Saiadabad.

TRADE ROUTES—

Reference to Skeleton Map—

Route No. 13 B	. Bam to Kerman.
„ „ 13 B and 13 A B . .	. Bam to Bampur and Chahbar.
„ „ 2 A and 2 . .	. Bam to Bander Abbas.
„ „ 13 B, 11 and 1 . .	. Bam to Khorasan and Seistan.

JIRUFT AND RUDBAR—

The Jiruft Valley and the undulating Rudbar Plain were in the past, Jiruft in particular, fertile and well-peopled, both being important tracts of country. Now, though about the best watered and most fertile portions of the Kerman province, there is not a town in either of these two places worth speaking of. The inhabitants are chiefly Nomads, or Semi-Nomads, who dwell in temporary huts, constructed of sticks and mats, which they either destroy or remove when they migrate. Except at Dasari, Gazala, Hookird and Khanu in Rubdar, where there are shops and water mills, there are, in all Jiruft and Rudbar, no permanent buildings of any sort. Yet the districts are capable of very great development indeed. The Halil Rud and the Hileri, with a score of unimportant streams, come down from the snow-capped mountain ranges that surround the valley. The irrigation engineer could devise means for economising and expending to the best advantage all the water that these streams carry, and teach the people how to improve their primitive methods of irrigation. The wasted, and sometimes destructive, floods of the rainy season, and the season of the thawing snows, would thus be conserved against the days of need. Up the valley of the Halil Rud, for example, a little above the microscopic hamlet of Husainabad, and the ruins of the ancient city of Camedi, three dams could be built which would store an immense amount of rain and snow water at an elevation sufficient to allow of the irrigation of even the highest parts of the valley.

The cultivable area would be increased tenfold by improved irrigation. With increased cultivation would come an increase of population, and an increased population would result in an increase of trade.

Food-grains, cotton, indigo and wool could all be raised with advantage, whilst large quantities of gum tragacanth are waiting to be harvested from the hills, and a very considerable export trade would grow up. Rubdar abounds in rich grass lands that might easily be turned to good account.

Trade.—The trade of these regions is at present almost entirely in the hands of a few Hindus, who have their head-quarters in Kerman in summer and Bander Abbas in winter, and branches in Dasari and Gazala. These men get most of their stocks through Kerman, though an occasional caravan is brought up direct from Bander Abbas. They have, according to report, been doing a very flourishing business, alike as legitimate traders and as money-lenders. Having no competitors, their prices and their rates of interest have been much higher than they ought to have been, whilst their business methods have doubtless not been commendable. They have incurred the enmity of the chief Khan in Jiruft, a Kermani, and he has succeeded in making it impossible for them to continue to trade or live in the valley. On the advice of the British Consul, these *banias* are selling up their land and shops and are moving; they will go probably to Bam.

According to the figures that I was able to get from these men, they did an important business, in Jiruft and Rudbar, of (cost price figures) R3,52,200. Of the total, cotton goods represented one lakh, tea a quarter of a lakh, sugar about a lakh and three quarters, woollen goods, matches, candles, oil and spices making up the rest. The chief exports were food-grains, wool, (1,200 kharvars produced, of which a third is sent to the port) and cotton (100 kharvars produced, of which half is sent to Bander Abbas).

YEZD—

Yezd has been known for centuries as a trading centre. Marco Polo mentions the place in connection with its manufactures and transit trade, and many early European travellers speak of the aptitude of its inhabitants for commerce.

Yezd attained the zenith of its commercial prosperity a quarter of a century ago, but within the last four years it has declined considerably in importance.

It is to-day a town of about 60,000 inhabitants, of whom 8,000—the most industrious and progressive—are Parsees. There used at one time to be a colony of Hindu traders at Yezd, but the last of these left the town six years ago, joining the colony located in Kerman. The exodus of the Hindus was due, I was informed by a Hindu in Rafsinjan, to the impossibility the Shikarpuris found in collecting outstandings, and to the bitter hostility shown them by the Mullahs. Had there been a British Consulate at Yezd, it is possible that this might not have occurred.

The decline in the wealth and importance of Yezd is due to a variety of causes. The chief of these are—The opening up of the Batoum route and the building of the Ashkabad Railway by the Russians, the opening by ourselves of the Quetta-Nushki trade route, and the imposition of the new intricate Customs tariff, together with the increased honesty and activity of the Customs Officials in the service of the Persian and Russian Governments at the frontiers.

As a consequence, goods (tea and piece-goods chiefly) that once changed hands in the bazars of Yezd, and were from there distributed over North Persia, and taken into Asiatic Russia, now enter the northern parts of Persia and the Trans-Caspian provinces of Russia *viâ* Batoum, whilst caravans bring tea and piece-goods into Khorasan and Seistan from Quetta.

An enormous trade in smuggled tea used, at one time, to be carried on with Russia, across the long Khorasan border. This has now almost disappeared, and the trade of Yezd, where the smugglers used to lay in their stocks, and make arrangements for getting the goods across the border, has suffered in consequence.

Yezd has always lived, and will, let us hope, continue to live, even though in a more humble way, by brokering and agency business, for new avenues of trade will be opened up. The sudden diversion of the transit trade has had a marked effect on the town. Already great areas of it are becoming depopulated and ruinous. In long stretches of the arcaded bazars shops stand vacant, and signs of ruin and decay are to be seen on every side.

Still, however, despite the evil days on which it has fallen, Yezd is populous and busy. Though its glory has departed, and though its district is a poor one, Yezd will always be a distributing centre and a place of considerable importance. It is situated in the centre of Persia, where three great natural highways meet. The inhabitants are keen traders by nature and training, and may be trusted not to neglect the advantages conferred upon them by their geographical position. The trade of Yezd has declined, but it would be safe to predict that it will not decline very much more.

Trade and Exports.—The manufactures of Yezd and its district consist of silk goods,—of artistic design and colouring, and of fairly good quality,—of cotton and silk carpets, of a kind of rough tenting, called *karbas*, and of a small amount of cotton cloth of varied pattern and texture. The district produces enough food to satisfy its wants for about two-thirds of the year, and has to import the rest.

Imports.—Yezd imports tea, sugar, cotton, piece-goods, yarns, candles, kerosine oil, matches, gunny bags, spices and henna, besides food-stuffs. As to the quantity imported, it is possible only to make an approximation, as no statistics are available. Figures furnished me went to show that the imports of tea averaged about 1,000,000 lbs. a year. Much of this tea is re-exported, and, of the total quantity, about 780,000 lbs. came from India. Of sugar, 21,688 cwt. entered the place, something over a third of this being French loaf sugar. Of cotton textiles, 1,500 bales of Manchester prints and 4,500 bales of shirtings and mexicans are said to meet the yearly demand. Of yarn, 1,760 bales entered Yezd, and of henna, 53,575 cwt. The yarn comes from Manchester and India in about equal proportions, and henna comes from Eastern and Southern Persia, for the most part from Khabis and Bam, and is ground in Yezd, where there are 40 mills, and is exported all over Persia and into Turkey and the Moslem provinces of Russia.

The import trade of Yezd is carried on mainly from Bander Abbas and Tehran, the majority of the goods coming through Bander Abbas. Goods are also brought up from Bushire, at times, *viâ* Shiraz when the road from Bander Abbas is unsafe, or when transport there is lacking. The Yezd merchants also visit Ispahan regularly, generally once a year, in April and May, and make heavy purchases there, chiefly of opium and piece-goods.

Trade Customs and Credits.—Sales in Yezd, as in most parts of Persia, are made on the basis of a fixed price, with credits which fluctuate with the rise or fall in the value of the commodity. These credits are in reality discounts, and in sale contracts provision is made for debts to be paid, or bills to be discounted, at the end of a certain period, generally from one to three months. The debt is sometimes paid in instalments, compound interest at the rate of 12 per cent. being allowed to the buyer on the unexpired period. This lengthening or shortening of the "discount credits" is equivalent to a rise or fall in the price of the commodity. Tea, for instance, may be quoted at Krans 50 at 12 months' credit, discountable after three months; a rise in value may make the quotation 50 Krans at six months' credit, whilst a fall in value may lengthen the credit to 36 months. In other words, tea on an average market sells for 50 Krans, less a discount of 9 per cent., compound interest, when payment is made after three months. When the price rises, only three months' discount, or 3 per cent. compound interest, is given. When the price falls, the discount may lengthen up to 33 months, or 33 per cent.

The system is a clumsy one. It was invented to get over the difficulty placed in the way of trade, by the declaration against usury contained in the Koran. It is little used in Kerman, where trade is practically in the hands of Hindus and Parsees, or on the Karun. When fluctuations in prices are extreme, as has lately been the case with sugar, the system will not work, and traders are forced to alter fixed price quotations.

Tea is generally bought for the Yezd market on direct commission by agents in Bombay. The purchases are generally paid for in cash, the importers' agent receiving paper from his principal which he disposes of in the Bombay market, or he sells his export against imports received from his principal, the difference being adjusted by bills exchanged. Purchases made at the ports, are, in inland markets, made sometimes for cash, but more frequently on the usual credit system, longer credits being granted where cloth and such goods, whose sale means a slower turn over, are concerned, than for tea, sugar and other goods that find rapid sale. Recently the trade in piece-goods has left so small a margin of profit for the middleman that most contract forms now bear a proviso to the effect that the debt shall not be discharged in less than three months. This is for the purpose of saving the interest of one per cent. per mensem.

Transport.—The transport trade between Yezd and other places is nearly all carried on by means of camel caravans, mules being employed only by travellers who are in haste, or for goods which are likely to deteriorate in value through time lost on the road. Goods for the Yezd market, which have been brought up on mules from Bushire as far as Shiraz, are there transferred to camels, which, though slower movers, are more satisfactory and less expensive carriers. The average time occupied on the road between Yezd and Bander Abbas is from 35 to 50 days, and between Yezd and Bushire about 30 days. The rates for transport fluctuate to such an extent as to render it impossible to quote with any accuracy.

REFERENCE TO ROUTE MAP—

Route—No. 6, Yezd-Bander Abbas *viâ* Sir-i-Yezd, Furg and Hormuz.

No. 13 A, 4 B and 15, *viâ* Anar Shahr-i-Babek.

Saiadabad, Sultanabad, and the Tang-i-Zagh;

Nos. 13 A and 4, *viâ* Bahramabad and the Tang-i-Zindan.

No. 13 A, Yezd-Kerman.

No. 14, Yezd-Shiraz and Bushire.

No. 15, Yezd-Meshed.

No. 16, Yezd-Ispahan.

SHIRAZ.—

Shiraz, the Capital of the province of Fars, is a town of about 60,000 inhabitants, the population showing a tendency to increase. It is the natural distributing centre for the province, and is also on the high road from Bushire to Yezd, Ispahan and other places in the north. Here the mule caravans come up from Bushire over the kotals, discharge their loads, which are transferred to camels, which form the favourite means of transport on the high plateau. The increased preference shown for the Lynch road or Bakhtiari route, from Ahwaz, for goods destined for the Ispahan market is certain, however, to cause in time (when the Lynch road is properly supplied with caravan-serais) a falling off in the transit trade of Shiraz, and also of Bushire. Robberies take place constantly on the Bushire-Shiraz road, and the systematic levying of illegal dues, such as octroi, and *rahdari* or road-cess, by road-guards, and even by the Governors of Shiraz and Bushire themselves, will not tend to improve matters.

Trade.—The available capital of Shiraz traders is estimated by the Manager of the Shiraz Branch of the Imperial Bank of Persia at over six million Tomans.

Exports.—The principal products of the province of Fars are—Opium, cotton, carpets and saddle bags, gums (tragacanth, arabic and ganjideh, this last an adulterant for opium), almonds and raisins, dried fruits, Apricot kernels, fox, sheep, goat and lamb skins, goats' hair and wool, tobacco, rose water, sheeps' entrails, *horses*, horns, etc.

The quantity of cotton exported annually is approximately 14,000 to 15,000 bales, each of 162·5 lbs.; most of this is destined for Russia. Of gum tragacanth, for which Shiraz is a great collecting centre, some 10,000 cwt. find their way out of the country, and about half of that quantity of gum arabic. From 4,800 to 5,000 chests of opium, and some 36,000 bags of tobacco, each of 100 lbs., are exported. The opium goes mainly to China, the United Kingdom, and United States. The tobacco export is a monopoly of the Turkish tobacco "Régie." Of carpets, 600 bales were sent abroad, mainly to Turkish Arabia and Egypt, in 1904. Wool exports from Fars are not handled in Shiraz, but in Bushire, where the clip is forwarded and sold.

Imports.—The import trade of Shiraz is practically all indent business. Messrs. Zeigler & Co., and Coddington and Lamb, on their own account, import piece-goods, nearly all of which are of British make, whilst native merchants do a large business on indent with English firms, the most important of these being Messrs. Dixon & Co., of Manchester, who supply about half the Manchester goods on the market. Messrs. Elenger & Co., of Manchester, and Hajji Mirza Ali Akbar & Son, of London, are also important suppliers. Much business is also done by Persian merchants dealing with Bombay, whilst small traders from Bushire compete with consignments in the Bushire market.

Till very recently the piece-goods trade in Shiraz depended entirely on the United Kingdom and India. Of late, however, there have been heavy deliveries of Russian goods on the Shiraz market, and the bazars, when I went through them, were full of Moscow goods. This trade has been fed from Ispahan, which is flooded with Russian merchandise. The trade is a purely artificial one, and each sale entails a heavy loss. The Russian dealer and manufacturer, however, are compensated by the Russian Government for any loss due to exchange, etc., and, judging from the heavy forward buying that is taking place at favourable rates for shipments to be made in future to Bushire, Russia is evidently determined to fight British goods at cutting rates. Most of these new contracts are being made with the Moscow firms of Petrosoff and Lazareff.

The chief imports are—Cotton and woollen piece-goods, yarns, silks, velvets, metals, sugar, tea, candles, glassware, earthenware, indigo (Khairpur and Madras, of poor quality), gold and silver laces and braids, spices, groceries, etc.

Approximate average figures of the imports in 1904 showed—Piece-goods (English) 35,000 bales, (Russian) 14,000 bales, tea (Indian) 14,000 to 15,000 cwt., (Batavian) 2,000 to 3,000 cwt., sugar loaf (Russian) 1,000 bags, (French, 50,000 cases, soft (Russian) 3,000 bags, (Austrian) 25,000 bags, indigo 2,500 chests, candles, 10,000 boxes, metals, of all sorts, 15,000 cwt., drugs, medicines 2,000 cases, kerosine oil (Russian) 15,000 cases.

Trade Customs and Credits.—European firms, importing on their own account, finance themselves in Europe or India and sell on the Shiraz market at two and three month's credit, remitting proceeds in produce or Bank bills. Native importers are drawn upon by consigners at from one to three months' sight, either for delivery of documents, or for payment. If the consignees are well known and reliable, they are allowed to take delivery of goods, trade, and remit or pay when drafts come due.

European firms quote in Krans for sales of goods in stock, but forward contracts are made in sterling, on c.i.f. terms. Kran quotations are, as in Yezd, at a fixed price, fluctuations being indicated by the discount (credit) arranged between the contracting parties. This discount is always at the rate of 12 per cent. per annum, compound interest.

The distribution of trade is worked as follows:—Substantial middlemen, styled *bonekdars*, buy from the wholesale importers, and sell in their turn by the roll, bale, or chest, to retail dealers, who supply consumers and pedlars. Goods thus pass through four or five hands after leaving the factory before they reach the consumer. The *bonekdars* sell to the retail store-keepers, and these to their clients, either for cash, or for part cash, credit being given for the remainder of the debt, for periods varying, according to the state of the market and the repute of the purchaser. The debt is then cleared off by instalments,

interest being reckoned at 12 per cent., compound, per annum, as is the case in larger operations.

Transport.—Transport from Shiraz in all directions is pack. Camels are in most request, except upon the route to Bushire, where, owing to the steepness and difficulty of the kotals, they are rarely seen. On this section mules and donkeys do all the work. Between Bushire and Shiraz goods are carried by contract, the muleteer, or *charvaidar*, agreeing to shift a consignment up or down in a specified number of days. This period for the upward journey varies from 12 to 40 days, and for the downward journey from 8 to 20 days. Special rates are paid for quick transit, and it costs about twice as much to get goods up from Bushire as it does to take them down.

The muleteers work on a peculiar and a very wasteful system, styled *dokesh*, or two journey. A portion of the consignment is taken forward a stage or two, and is then dumped down by the side of the road, whilst the mules return for another supply, the whole being gradually worked forward in this manner.

All over Southern Persia transport to the sea-ports from the central region is considerably cheaper than it is from the sea-board northwards. This is due to the greater demand for transport to the interior, caused by the great excess of imports over exports. Imports and exports between Russia and Persia, across the northern border of Persia, are much better balanced, nearly equal in fact; transport in the north is not effected in this manner, and there is hardly any disparity of rates.

Shiraz carries on a large forwarding trade with the northern towns, most of it through Ispahan and Yezd. Sometimes, however, the Tehran caravans leave the trunk route near Surmeh, branching off to the right, and pass to the east of Ispahan, striking the Natanz-Kashan route. This is done for the sake of fodder and provisions, which are generally cheaper on tracks other than the main ones.

The road to Yezd branches off from that to Ispahan at Dehbid, going through the Heneshk defile, crossing the Kavir by the way of Abargu, and the range of mountains to the north-west of the salt desert by the pass known as the Gardan-i-Aliabad.

The caravan road between Shiraz and Yezd is well frequented, but is not safe owing to highway robbers. That portion of the road where it crosses the Kavir near Abargu is particularly unsafe. When I came through, muleteers were charging special rates for going that way, and most of the Shiraz trade destined for Yezd was being carried on *viâ* Isphan.

Reference to route map.

Route—No. 14, Shiraz-Bushire.
No. 14, Shiraz-Yezd.
Nos. 14 and 14 A, Shiraz-Ispahan.
No. 7, Shiraz-Lar.

BUSHIRE.—

Bushire, the most important, though not the best situated and most convenient, of Persian ports, was selected by Nadir Shah, in the middle of the century before last, as the best spot for the creation of a port in the south. He thought of forming docks, and here making it the head-quarters of the Persian Navy in the Gulf. The navy came to nothing, and the roadsteads of Bushire remained unimproved by dockyard or harbour when Nadir Shah met with his death. As he left them, so they are to-day, though the commerce of the place has grown enormously, and the little fishing village has expanded into a flourishing, if dirty, town.

In consequence of the ruin of their business and factory at Bander Abbas, and of the hopelessly disturbed state of the country behind that port, which brought commerce to a standstill, the East India Company transferred their factory to Bushire. Karim Khan, the great Zend, Viceroy of Fars, at that time the real ruler of Persia, saw the advantages that would result from

English trade and friendship. He granted the Honourable East India Company many privileges, and saw to it at the same time that the roads in the Hinterland were kept fairly safe.

The growth of commerce was at first slow, and in 1765 there was only one English merchant in the place. It was, however, at the same time sure. The mercantile marine on the Gulf was steadily developed. Piracy was, though only slowly, and after great efforts on the part of the English, suppressed. Caravans into the interior increased in number, the difficult route over the kotals being adopted. At the beginning of the 19th Century the place had grown to be a town of between 6,000 and 8,000 inhabitants, and by the "seventies" the population had increased to about 15,000. An estimate made in 1904 by the British Consulate, in conjunction with the Persian authorities, put the population of Bushire at a little under 25,000.

The commercial growth of the port may be fairly gauged by the growth of the population.

In the late "seventies" English mercantile transactions were conducted in a great measure through the agency of Armenians. Now, however, there are several European firms and agents in the place, among whom are two Russian and one German.

In 1885 the British India Steam Navigation Company's steamers to and from Basrah called every second Wednesday at Bushire, and occasionally outside steamers, on the average of once a month, paid irregular visits to the port. Now the roadsteads are seldom without a steamer two days in succession. Twice a week the steamers of the British India Steam Navigation Company's fast mail call at Bushire on their way up and down the Gulf, and twice a week the slower local steamers of the same company stop there. Direct boats from London also call, timing their visits according to the spring tides, so as to enable them to get over the Fao Bar on their way to Busreh. The lines making Bushire a port of call are—the Hartlepool, the Anglo-Arabian Steam Navigation Company, the British India Steam Navigation Company, the Bombay-Persian line and the Russian (Odessa) Steamer Company.

The port.—As a port Bushire is as inconvenient as ever it was. Cut off from the interior by a wall of mountains, it is separated from, rather than connected with, Shiraz by what is perhaps the worst road in the world. The only hospitality that the premier port of the Persian Empire has to offer ocean-going craft is that of an open roadstead, separated from the town by three miles of flats and shoals, and an outer roadstead, seven miles from shore, where ships of any considerable draught, or which have been delayed by accidents of weather or tide, have to anchor. The place is liable to be visited by sudden severe storms, which make the working of cargo hazardous, and often impossible, and sometimes oblige ships to put out to sea so as to avoid being driven ashore.

I am informed that it would not be a difficult or unduly expensive feat to make Bushire into a fair harbour. Stack, in 1882, estimated that an expenditure of £50,000 (R7,50,000) spent on cutting through the bar and dredging would enable large ships to be brought very much nearer the shore than they now can be. In the 23 years that have elapsed since Stack made his estimate the working efficiency of dredgers has increased enormously, with a corresponding increase in economy, and the sum then thought sufficient would, perhaps, not prove to be too little now.

At Bushire the unfortunate shipper has to risk two transhipments,—one between the ship and the Bushire Customs wharf and the other between Bushire and Shief. At Shief goods coming downwards lie on the beach, exposed to the weather, awaiting, often for weeks, this pleasure of highly independent and inefficient boatmen, nominally the servants of the caravan contractors, who, when they do take the cargo, cause infinite damage through overloading and inadequate covering, and not seldom broach or *jettison* cargo confided to their care. The transit of goods between Bushire and the ships is attended, too, with so much risk of loss and damage that insurance on goods belonging to Persian merchants can, as a rule, only be effected from the ship.

The Kotal Road.—As the harbour is capable of improvement, so also is the very bad road over the kotals to Shiraz. This kotal road is at present, for all

practical purposes, the only one between Bushire and the rest of Persia, for the roads *viâ* Feruzabad to Shiraz, and the month-long coastal road running through the wilderness to Bander Abbas, are never used. Lord Curzon, in his work "Persia," points out that each of the four appallingly bad kotals can be avoided by making a detour, which, though it would add appreciably to the mileage of the Bushire-Shiraz road, would not add more than another day or two to the time occupied in transit, whilst reducing the present difficulties and risks enormously.

If, on leaving the coast plain, the left bank of the Shahpur River, or Rud Hillah, be adhered to, the bad road down the skirts of the mountains to Daliki, the Kotal Malu, the Kotal-i-Kanarij and the difficult defile of the Tang-i-Turkhan would all be avoided, and the Kazaroon plain reached without undue difficulty or exertion. Continuing south-east along the plain, and following the Shahpur River to its source, the angle of the range overhanging the Kazaroon valley on the north-easterly side can be turned, and the heart-breaking Kotal-i-Dukhtar avoided, the track emerging into the upper end of the Dasht-i-Barn. The mountains here can be struck two miles to the east of the present road over the Kotal-i-Pir-Zan, where an easier pass is gained at a spot where the range diminishes in height and steepness towards the lower end of the Dasht-i-Arzen. This road would be considerably shorter than the way round by Feruzabad, which has also upon it three long and waterless stages. It was, however, by way of Feruzabad, that the Persians got wheeled artillery down to the coast in 1857, and that is also the route which the projected Russian Railway to the Gulf will take, if ever the project be realised.

Trade.—Bushire, whose local trade is not of any great importance, serves as a distributing centre for places on the Littoral towards Lingah to the south and Behbahan to the north. This trade is of a petty character, the heavy business being done for Shiraz and Ispahan. Persian traders operating in Bushire consign their goods to principals or partners in Shiraz, and to correspondents in Ispahan and Yezd, whence any demands for the more northerly markets are met. Trade with Great Britain is mainly in the hands of British firms, who have houses or agencies in Bushire. The direct trade with India is in the hands not of Indians, but of Persians, mostly men of Shirazi stock, who have houses in Bombay. A majority of these men work through relatives and partners, who are British subjects.

The following figures show the value of the trade of the port of Bushire for the last two years:—

	1903.	1904.
	£	£
Imports	870,803	889,825
Exports	366,666	454,981

Of this the Indian share was—

	1903.	1904.
	£	£
Imports	132,207	204,009
Exports	62,179	122,911

The United Kingdom contributed in 1903 approximately 48 per cent. of the imports, and in 1904, 44 per cent., taking of the exports in the former year 12 per cent. and in the second year 16 per cent. The Indian contribution to imports was, approximately, in 1903, 33 per cent. which fell last year to 23 per cent. Of exports, through Bushire, India took 21 per cent. in 1903 and 27 per cent. in 1904.

Though the figures for the year ending December 1904 show for Bushire an increase in the gross value of imports of £19,022, and in exports of £88,315, the increase in imports becomes a decrease of £48,873, if the increase of £67,895, which took place in the importation of bullion, be deducted. This decrease was due chiefly to the cholera epidemic, which stopped all commerce here and throughout Persia for four months. The general dullness of the Persian market was accentuated by the unusual dearness of nearly every commodity, of cotton goods in particular on the home market, combined with a very adverse exchange

Exports.—The heaviest exports from Bushire were in 1904—horses, £4,202 worth, drugs and medicines, £13,011, almonds and pistachios, £28,481, gums, £64,869, of which, India took £13,353, skins, raw and undressed, £17,816, an increase over 1903 of £9,766, woollen carpets (to India) £2,046, a decrease of £1,715, raw cotton £11,704, an increase of £7,488, vegetable substances, £1,267 (to India), raw and waste wool and hair, £4,542. The export of wool to India was, however, valued at only £472. Cotton has recently been coming down to Bushire for shipment by the bi-monthly boats of the Russian Steam Navigation Shipping Company, which has an office in Bushire, and Russia has been assisting shippers by a direct money payment of something like ¾ths of their transport charges from the cotton-growing districts of Ispahan and Fars to the port.

Imports.—The principal imports into the port of Bushire were in 1904—candles, £7,144, yarns and twist of cotton, £17,720, a decrease in woollen yarns of £617 took place, none being imported, and a decrease of £949 in the importation of yarns of linen and hemp, only £17 worth being imported; there was, on the other hand, an increase in the importation of yarns and twist of jute, £3,245 worth being brought in, mercery and hardware, £6,539, metals and manufactures of metals, all kinds, £120,450, cotton tissues and tulles, £312,611, woollen tissues, excepting shawls and carpets, £14,536, tea, £59,172, of which £33,282 represented Indian tea, showing an increase of £5,681 over the previous year; there was a decrease, however, in the total tea imports of £2,948, glass and glassware and window glass, £3,501, sugar, loaf and candy, £74,474, crystal and soft, £33,514; leather ware £2,225, an increase of £1,266.

Exchange.—Exchange on London fluctuated from Krans 56 to Krans 62·5 per pound sterling, and on Bombay from Krans 376·5 to Krans 417·5 per ₹100. This unsettled state of exchange was due mainly to the cessation of exports from North Persia, and the consequent difficulty of purchasing exchange as cover for sales. Buyers and sellers of British and Indian goods felt immediately, and to the full, the effect of the slighest fluctuation in exchange, for the simple reason that Persia's imports from the United Kingdom and India are so greatly in excess of her exports, the two being so out of all proportion, that goods bought cannot be covered by goods sold. The case is far otherwise with Russo-Persian trade, where imports and exports are fairly balanced, to the advantage of both Russian and Persian traders. No effort should be left unmade to induce a better balance in Perso-British trade.

Trade Custom and Credits.—Credits, so far as foreign manufactures and operators are concerned, are not very long. They range from one to six months, the average being three months, dating from acceptance, the buyer being drawn on at sight. For goods sold to the interior longer credits are given than for goods brought out for consignees at the port.

The majority of the transactions of the British firms in Bushire are in sterling, the local purchaser taking risk of exchange, and passing approved sterling bills to the seller at due date. Difference of interest for the days to run is calculated at six per cent. Most of these sterling bills consist of Bank paper, received from inland correspondents, or got locally. For the most part, these transactions arise from indent business done on account of Persian customers, who are kept going by their British creditors. Bills are accompanied by documents, sometimes against payment only, more commonly against acceptance. Interest is charged at six per cent. per annum from date of payment for the goods to due date of return remittance. Bills are, however, seldom met on due date.

Credit in goods has been given very freely, indeed somewhat recklessly, in the past by British firms and manufacturers. To such an extent has it been done that most of the trade of southern Persia to-day move and lives by British capital. The Persian traders are practically in the position of broker agents, with no responsibility. The best asset of any man is his personal honesty, as accepted bills can be repudiated with impunity. Owing to the peculiar customs of this lawless country, debts can rarely be recovered, even when the Persian Foreign Agent, moved by the foreign Consular authorities, gives judgment against the debtor. The dishonest trader can be dishonest with impunity. All British capital in Persia must be looked upon as unsafe as

matters now stand. The Persian is not as faithful to his word as is the Chinaman. He is a bold and reckless buyer. The future holds few terrors for him. He trusts to fortune in a great measure for the payment of his debts if honest, and to the lack of laws for their evasion if dishonest. Fate and the sanctuary bring great comfort to the soul of the bankrupt. "Irresponsible indent canvassers," to quote the designation employed by a veteran Persian merchant, sent heavy orders to England, and the indents were promptly filled with as little reflection. The indentors, working with the smallest of capitals, trusted to fortune to pay for new indents by the sale of preceding ones when they could. This they were seldom able to do fully, and the consequence was that either fresh indents had to be complied with before former ones had been paid for, or business had to be suspended, and the men forced into bankruptcy. The alternative was to go on in the hope of getting square eventually. It has now become virtually impossible to wipe out old scores, and debtors and their debts must be kept going. To stop credits and demand the settlement of old accounts would mean immediate and wholesale bankruptcy amongst the indentors, and, perhaps, suppliers. What is more, I fear that it would be beyond the powers of His Britannic Majesty's Consular Officers to recover any but a microscopic portion of these debts. The unsatisfactory state of commercial law requires the urgent attention of the mercantile community, as well as that of Government. Indo-Persian trade is conducted for the most part by cash against documents, after the method described in the section devoted to Shiraz, though credits of four and six months, discountable after a month, are given where textiles and twist are concerned.

Credits on sales made in Persian currency run usually from one to three months. Goods which sell quickly are sold at short credits, and cash payments are common. Goods whose sale means a slow turnover are accorded longer credits.

On the whole it seems that the Indo-Persian trade is conducted on a sounder basis than is Anglo-Persian, or Russo-Persian, trade, in which credits are frequent and long, and bad debts so common.

Up-country indentors get delivery of documents on acceptance of drafts through Banks and agents, it being understood that credit will be allowed so long as payments are prompt. The general usance for up-country operations is one to three and sometimes four months' sight. Persian merchants, either through inability or unwillingness, seldom meet drafts in full on due date, but resort to payment by drafts on their houses elsewhere at 15 or 30 days' sight, thus extending the period of credit considerably.

Merchants in Southern Persia complain that whether from want of competition, or for some other reason, the views of the existing Bank are unduly narrow so far as concerns accommodation in dealing with bills. All papers, however sound, are heavily penalised as compared with Bank paper when offered in payment against drafts, and it is not always easy or possible to procure Bank paper, except at a heavy premium, whilst there is no lack of other sound paper, to be had at fair rates, on the market. This hits traders hard, at times, especially during the busy date season. Many consequently do their own banking business, or work through shroffs.

Custom House.—Owing to the enforcement at Bushire of the new Customs rules regarding the unloading of cargo, the presentation of Bills of Lading, the declaration, verification and clearance of goods, and the overcarriage of cargo, all of which are onerous to a degree, and utterly unsuited to any port in the Gulf, merchants, Persian and European alike, refused in April 1904 to clear their goods from the Custom House. These, when I was in Bushire in May, choked the none too capacious or well-arranged godowns, whilst orders were countermanded, and goods diverted elsewhere.

With a view to discovering a *modus vivendi*, meetings were held in Bushire, at two of which I had the honour to be present, and certain proposals were circulated to the various Consuls and Consuls-General, representing the views of the entire commercial community, including the Russian element, and hope was expressed that good would result, since the Customs administration had commenced to show an inclination to listen to the reasonable representation of

substantial grievances. This was evidenced by the fact that instructions were sent down from Tehran to the Director-General, instructing him to confer with the mercantile community, with a view to seeing what were the exact requirements of the port, and what, in the opinion of the merchants, and Consuls, could be done to improve matters, the interests of the State and of the Customs being, at the same time, safeguarded.

Next to the great, though remediable, natural difficulties of the port itself the greatest difficulty that the merchants of Bushire have to contend against is the way in which the Customs administration have confused the duties and person of the *Hamal-bashi*, or Chief Porter, and the Landing Contractor.

Some time ago a movement was started for the formation of a Transport and Landing Company in Bushire. This company was to land goods, pass them through the Customs, and take and give delivery.

It was also proposed to establish a wheeled transport service to the foot of the kotals, with an organised and systematic pack transport service over the passes into Shiraz.

In it were concerned British, Persian, Indian, German and Russian traders. The project, which promised to be successful, fell through, because the Customs administration put absolutely insuperable difficulties in its way, being evidently of the opinion that it was a smuggling organisation.

The Customs administration refuse to permit any firm or agent to employ a private landing contractor or company, unless goods are landed in decked boats, with sealed hatches, every package being also sealed, and a fee paid, of course, for each seal or stamp.

As work under such conditions would have been impossible, the merchants were forced to abandon their scheme, and to accept the *Hamal-bashi* as their Landing Contractor.

Consignees would find nothing objectionable in this arrangement, if only the official Landing Contractor would do his work satisfactorily, taking delivery of cargo in a proper and expeditious manner from ship, and bringing it to the shore at the Customs wharf, where only, strange to say, his responsibility for cargo, and that of the Customs for loss or damage, seems to begin.

The *Hamal-bashi* is, however, a man of straw. He has not capital enough to buy boats of his own to do the work with, and he is not in a position to command hired boats belonging to others whenever wanted.

The difficulties under which merchants, in consequence, labour in this port, where the inner anchorage is three miles, and the outer anchorage from five to seven miles, from the Customs wharf, may be estimated from the fact that in the grain season there are often not more than five or six boats to be found in the port, the others being busily engaged in carrying cargo along the coast, and consequently not available for use as lighters.

In Bushire, as at Bander Abbas, in cases of loss or damage, it is difficult, almost impossible, to get any redress or recover money from either the Custom House, or the *Hamal-bashi*. After the approved Persian fashion, each shifts the blame to the shoulders of the other. This, despite the fact that the Customs Department is supposed, in the person of the *Hamal-bashi*, its servant, to sign for cargo at the ship, land and sort it for examination, and deliver goods, when cleared, at merchants' godowns, according to a fixed tariff laid down by the Customs authorities.

The Customs wharf and premises are cramped and inconvenient. They allow neither of efficient working, nor efficient storage. Of a consequence, damage, during handling and from exposure to sun and rain, is of frequent occurrence. Extensions have been made, but more are required. The Customs staff is also undermanned, particularly for the working of so minute and complicated a tariff as that now in force. A steam-launch is urgently needed to convey Customs Officials to and from steamers in the offing, as so much time is now lost by using clumsy native boats, which are dependant on wind and tide.

Whilst speaking of the difficulties of the port of Bushire, and the shortcomings of the Customs, it will not do to forget that the shipping companies show themselves far from accommodating in their dealings with their clients,

the consignees. It would be as well for the steamship companies not to permit themselves to be led into taking advantage of the peculiar position of the *Hamal-bashi*, and the peculiar difficulties of the port, and placing on the shoulders of the consignees extra charges, such as those for working cargo at night, on a holiday or in the outer roadstead, charges that are obviously due from the ship, for work done, nor in the interests of the consignee, but of the ship.

It is also certain that all the losses of goods that take place, whilst discharging cargo, are not "from lighter," and so do not all lie on the shoulders of the *Hamal-bashi*. Losses have been known to occur by goods falling into the sea whilst being transhipped, and in other ways, for which the ship is, or ought to be, responsible. The *Hamal-bashi's* fees for night work, etc., ought not to be, as they now are, collected from consignees by the shipping agents. A little consideration on the part of British ship-owners for their clients might, perhaps, be advisable. At present, between excessive freights, and a multitude of petty extra charges, these clients are not very well satisfied.

The bulk of goods from Europe come up the Gulf in British ships, which at Port Said pick up the goods landed there for transhipment from Europe. Nothing could be easier than for the subsidised Russian steamers from Odessa to take this trade from the Britith lines by approaching consigners, and consignees and offering them greater consideration both as regards freights and the extra charges complained of.

Transport.—Freights from the United Kingdom to Bushire were steady at 35*s.* a ton, for general cargo, during 1904. Homeward freights were 27*s.* 6*d.* per ton measurement, for the first nine months of the year, and rose in the last quarter to 30*s.* a ton. Freights to and from Bombay were steady at R10 per ton measurement for general cargo.

The normal rate for transport inland is at about 90 Krs. per Tabrizi Kharwar to Shiraz. The cholera epidemic in 1904, however, put rates up enormously, and for a time transport was not procurable at *three times* normal rates.

The road over the kotals is unsafe for either travellers or merchandize, where the former are Persian subjects and the latter is Persian property. The road-guards extort blackmail and levy road-cess without fear, and robberies are frequent. Europeans have little cause to fear for either person or purse, as they can protect themselves and can gain redress through their Consuls. For Persians there is no redress to be hoped for, and they seldom, unless very powerful and influential personages, think of even making an official report of a robbery or dream of offering any opposition. They are therefore subject to constant blackmailing at the hands of road-guards, and their goods are constantly being robbed.

The methods followed by the transport contractors between Bushire and Shiraz has been described elsewhere (*see Shiraz*). In spite of the fact that the time occupied in the transport of goods is unnecessarily long, and, though Persian traders at Bushire, Shiraz, and Ispahan would not be sorry to get quicker transport, they are not willing to pay any extra for it, and seem perfectly content that, as a normal thing, goods should be from 25 to 40 days on a road not 200 miles long.

Sheif, some nine miles from Bushire, across the "Inner Bay," is the landing place for all goods and travellers going up-country, and the terminal station of one of the greatest of the Persian trade routes. At Sheif there is, however, nothing but a sand spit, on which stands a ruined serai. This affords accommodation for two road-guards, who run a *kawa khana*, or coffee shop. Goods landed from boats, or dropped by mules at Sheif, lie exposed at the edge of the sea. There is no water at the place for man or beast, and mules coming down from the interior drop their loads, and are then hurried back 20 miles or so, to water at Khoshab, Naokal or other villages on the higher plain.

Yet the post at Sheif is farmed out by the Persian authorities to the *Tofanchi-bashi* or chief of road-guards, who is reported to have paid 5,000 Tomans last year for the place. The road-guards do not elect to live at this

desolate spot for charity's sake, and of course the *Tofanchi-bashi* recovers considerably more than he paid for the post in the blackmail and road-cess levied upon *Charvaidars* and travellers. This at the very gates of Persia and within a few miles of where the Belgians levy the considerably enhanced Customs duties that were supposed to supersede the old irregular tolls, and where there are Consuls-General and Consuls of various nationalities. Astonishment at the ways of the Persian Government is pardonable in these circumstances.

Considering the difficulties of the landing at Bushire and Sheif, and this matter of illegal exactions, it is a pity, indeed, that the Minister of Customs could not see the advantages that would have resulted to his own department, as well as to the mercantile community, from the formation of a landing and transport company. This now has, without doubt, gone the way of the plans for the formation of similar companies pondered over by a Governor of Bushire early in 1903, and by a late Director of Customs. The organization of a more efficient transport service for Russian goods between Bushire, Shiraz, and Ispahan, was reported to have been considered by a Russian Official, but nothing more has been heard of it.

Transport between Shiraz and Bushire is practically all done by mules, camels being seldom or never used, as the road is so bad. In the interior, however, camels are most generally employed.

Reference to map—

Route No. 14, Bushire-Shiraz.
„ „ 8, Bushire-Bander Abbas.

PRINCIPAL ARTICLES OF COMMERCE.

IMPORTS.

N. B.—For purposes of calculation and transposition from one currency to another, 1,000 "batman"= 6,547 lbs.; Krans 60=Rs. 15=£1 sterling.

Animals.

Baggage camels are imported from Mesopotamia, Transcaspia, Arabia, and India. Prices range from Krs. 200 to Krs. 600 per head.

Horses.

A few riding horses come from India and Arabia into the south, whilst north Persia draws draught and carriage horses from Transcaucasia, Transcaspia, and packhorses from Afghanistan. Only 2 horses were imported into Bushire from India in 1902, 5 in 1903, and 1 in 1904; the average number for the five years preceding 1902 was 4. Bander Abbas showed no imports of horses.

Donkeys.

Donkeys of a very fine type are imported for saddle-work from Oman and Bahrein into Southern Persia: the average price is Rs. 150. Bander Abbas in 1903 imported 237 donkeys, the septennial average being 282. Bushire reports show no import of donkeys but many are brought from Bahrein.

Arms and Ammunition.

Importation is prohibited, except under special permission. Austrian and Russian rifles have been imported by the Government for the army. The Nomads have a great affection for rifles and cartridges of British make, but Mausers of Belgian make and Mannlichers are common. In spite of all precautions, the illicit trade in arms is not yet dead. Martini-Henri rifles are made in the country in some of the Government arsenals, amongst others that of Shiraz, where really creditable weapons are turned out. There is a Government ammunition factory in Tehran and all over the country cartridges are re-loaded with native-made powder and ball. Percussion caps are imported.

Beverages, Spirits, Wine, etc.

A limited quantity is imported for the use of Europeans and the richer Persian officials. Custom permits the Persian to drink wine, despite the prohibition imposed by the Koran, and he satisfies his thirst mostly with native-made wine and *arrack*, having little to do with foreign beverages.

Butter, Clarified.

Owing to the recent long continued drought in Southern Persia, some ghee known by the Persians as *Rogan*, has been imported from India, but this article of diet usually forms an export from Bushire to which place it is brought down from the Fars highlands. Great quantities of ghee are used by the fishing fleets in the preparation of food. Prices ranged from 6 to 12 Krans per man of 6·5 lbs.

Candles.

The increasing use of kerosine oil imported chiefly from Russia has caused a falling-off in the demand for candles as compared with five years back, but there will always be a strong demand for this article, as it has driven out the old native lamp which burned fat, and candles are preferred to oil lamps for religious illuminations and celebrations; travellers also give them the preference.

Customs House Statistics for the year ending December 1904, show that in that year candles to the value of £7,144 sterling were imported at Bushire, as compared with £5,525 worth in 1903. Imports from India show a decrease

however of £583 in value, the figures being £2,683 in 1903 and £2,100 in 1904. Bander Abbas imported from India 82 cases, valued at Rs. 785 (£52). The average quantity of candles imported from all countries by Bander Abbas, for the five years ending December 1901, was 2,366 cases, while the imports for 1902, 1903, was 2,089 and 6,808 cases, respectively.

Indian-made candles have been fairly successful, and if the price could be reduced a trifle ought to drive out Belgian and Dutch candles (which are more than twice as dear) which hold such a prominent place in imports *viâ* the Gulf.

Candles for the southern market must be hard in quality, and of a high melting point; it is inadvisable to ship up the Gulf between May and October. Twelve ounce candles, in packets of six, and cases of 30 packets, will meet with the readiest sale.

In northern markets the Russian candle, an infamously bad article, with a thick bulbous wick, has, owing to its being slightly cheaper, driven out the Austrian article that used to be imported in great quantities *viâ* Trebizond, and I can see no reason why the Indian article should not do the same to the Belgian and Dutch in the south.

Cereals.

Flour.—Russian flour is imported into parts of Northern Persia. Indian flour has been imported into Southern Persia during years of scarcity, but with returning prosperity the imports of flour, and of all cereals and feculæ have, of course, fallen off. Bahrein and the Arab Coast, however, always import rice and flour heavily.

Rice.—Enough is grown for home consumption in most places. The Gulf littoral, however, takes a modest, and the Arab Coast and Bahrein take large and regular supplies. There are prospects of trade with Persian Baluchistan.

Wheat.—There has been a great import of wheat in recent years, due to continuous bad harvests in the Southern Persia. This has fallen off with the return of good seasons.

Clothing (Wearing apparel).

Woven underclothing of cotton and wool,—socks, drawers, and vests,—as well as shirts of flannel and cotton, find increasing favour amongst the well-to-do in the large towns.

Bushire prices:—

	Krans.	Each.
Flannelette shirts	3	„
Light vests, woven	2½	„
Drawers	3½	„
Socks, grey woollen	3	„

There was no sale for these goods in Bander Abbas and quotations were unobtainable.

Woven drawers of light texture cost 5½ Krans, in Kerman, and woven shirts, medium texture (German), 8 Krans.

In Kerman a native merchant has imported machines for the knitting of socks, and a leading trader in Shiraz is also importing some German machines for knitting socks, and weaving vests and drawers, which latter garments are beginning to find favour amongst the short kirtled ladies in the *anderoons*.

The demand for boots and shoes of European cut and make increases, but only goods at the very lowest prices, say, 2 to 3 Tomans (Rs. 5 to 7½) per pair, at Kerman or Yezd, will sell readily.

If consignments of boots and shoes be sent to Persia, it would be well for consignees or speculators to bear in mind that shoes with toe-caps are classified as fancy leather work by the Customs, and taxed as a luxury, whilst shoes without toe-caps come in on a low scale.

In the Bushire bazaar, white canvas shoes of very fair quality sell for Krans 18 to 23, and brown leather shoes for Krans 30 to 40; these are made on European lines. Clumsy Bombay made shoes are also to be had in Bander Abbas for Rs. 4 to 5 a pair, but do not meet with much demand as they fall to pieces very quickly.

COFFEE.

From India the demand is very limited, Persians being tea and not coffee-drinkers. The chief demand is during the Moharram. The berry sells in Bushire unroasted, at Krans 18 per Tabriz man (6·5lbs.). At Bander Abbas the imports from India, in 1903, were cwt. 424 (Rs. 17,586), and in 1904 cwt. 157 (Rs. 5,975), and at Bushire the value of imports for 1903-1904 was £501 and £42 respectively.

COTTON TEXTILES.

Imports of yarns and tissues :—

	£
1900-01	1,501,923
1901-02	2,359,220
1902-03	1,849,641
1903-04	2,368,708

Distributed—

	British.	Russian.	Other.
	£	£	£
*1901-02	1,563,929	679,229	116,062
1902-03	1,281,608	492,137	75,896
1903-04	1,231,905	1,034,434	102,370

It is only since 1891 that Russian competition really began to make itself felt; since that period it has grown more and more severe. Since Russian competition is dependant on the purse of the Empire and not of the Russian manufacturer, the question that now presents itself is : how long will the unsupported traders and manufacturers of the British Empire be able to stand against it? Already Russian bounty goods, which come by the overland routes from the north, or which are brought by bounty-paid ships from Odessa, compete with British goods in the Gulf littoral at cutting rates. This means it is true little or no profit for the Russian goods, but it also means lessened profit, or none, for British goods. So demoralised are the Persian merchants that they are beginning to expect to get their goods for nothing and are more than a little disappointed if they do not do so.

The drawbacks granted by the Russian Government on all cotton tissues exported to Persia are on the following scale :—

	Rbls.
Bleached and unbleached	4.65½ per poud (36·1127 lbs.)
Coloured, except Adrianople dye (red ground)	4.87½ „
Coloured, Adrianople dye	5.40 „

During 1899 and 1890 the cotton textile market in Persia was in British hands, and Russia supplied only about 10 per cent. of the goods sold.

In 1898 the Russian Government began to give drawbacks.

These drawbacks were, according to the class of goods, gold roubles 2·30, 2·40 and 2·80 per poud. Russian exports to Persia then amounted to about £500,000 or not quite equal to a third of British or British-Indian imports.

It soon grew, and to-day Russian importations of cotton textiles into Persia very nearly equal the importations from the British Empire, whilst Russia shows so far no intention of abandoning the economically false, but successful methods that have brought about this increase in her trade with Persia. The rapid development of Russian competition, which has increased from 10 per cent. of the total imports in 1890 to what it is to-day, affords a striking example of what may be expected all over Persia if we are not prepared to meet Russia with her own methods.

1901 was marked by a very great increase in both British and Russian imports of cotton textiles into Persia. There was a falling-off in imports in the year following. In 1903 there was again a considerable increase, and the market was over-stocked; this led to a decrease of imports into the Gulf ports in 1904. In the beginning of 1905 the congestion commenced to disappear, and the market to brisk up.

*Figures showing distribution in 1900-01 not obtainable.

Tissues.—The new Customs Tariff does not differentiate in classification between white and grey goods and printed and dyed tissues. These all come under the same heading and all pay the same duty, by weight, 12 Krs. for 10 batmans (65·47 lbs). The other two classes coming under the head of cotton tissues are: cotton velvets and plushes and cotton tulles,—embroidered or not,—both of which pay duty at 25 Krans per batman.

There is a discrimination between the above and white and grey goods, however, since paying duty on weight, and not *'ad valorem,'* the cheap white and grey goods pay the heavier duty which may be taken as equivalent to from 8 to 11 per cent. of their value, whilst the more expensive coloured goods and prints pay considerably less than the old Customs charge of 5 per cent. *ad valorem.* Here, again, we see the working of the Customs Tariff for the benefit of Russian trade, most of her imports being colored prints.

Goods heavily filled and *'sized'* to attract the eye of the retail buyer, pay duty, of course, on the materials with which they are loaded, and which is of no possible use whatever to the purchaser. I do not know if it is impossible to turn out goods of this class which are not heavily filled, though, could it be done, it would result in a two-fold advantage. In the first place, since Customs dues are levied by weight, the consignee and the consumer would no longer have to pay a heavy tax on what is to them a useless load and the manufacturer would find that the falling-off in the demand for white goods, which are mainly bought for re-dying, a falling off which has been such an unsatisfactory and marked feature in the British Cotton Textile Trade of Persia within the last few years, would cease.

The *Chitsaz*, or native printer, and the dyer, who had been badly hit by the increased duty and the consequently increased price of grey and white goods, would be able to recover some of the ground that they have lost. The decrease in the demand for these articles which has manifested itself of late, and which affects England particularly, would be to a certain extent stayed. This would be all to England's advantage, for the trade in white and grey goods is entirely a British trade, in which Russia has tried but has failed to compete.

If native dyeing is killed, as is being done, by the increased price of white goods, and of indigo consequent on the incidence of the new Customs Tariff and if the demand for shirtings and Mexicans is replaced by one for dyed stuffs and prints, England will be the loser. She will bear all the loss resulting from the decreased demand in the former class, and cannot hope to gain more than half of the advantage resulting from the increase in the demand for prints and dyed stuffs, hence Russia stands to gain again.

White and Grey goods and Shirtings.—At the present moment the demand for shirtings is roughly about half that for printed and dyed tissues, and is supplied almost entirely by the British Empire. Russia has attempted to compete in Mexicans, but has failed. Holland supplies a small amount of white and grey shirtings which have met with a limited demand. Massachussets shirtings are in great request along the pirate coast.

The Kerman and Yezd markets are supplied mostly by Hindu and Persian traders, dealing through Bombay, the goods being imported *viâ* Bander Abbas and may be looked on as British.

The average importation of white and grey shirtings at Bander Abbas, for the five years ending with 1901 was 4,190 bales. The imports in 1902 were 3,233 bundles, and 6,783 in the year following; 6,140 bales were imported in 1904. The falling-off was small compared with "cotton goods, other sorts" (prints mostly) which, averaging on the five years ending 1901 an importation of 2,291 bales, amounted to 2,579 bales in 1902, falling to 627 bales in 1903, and to only 3 bales in the year ending December 1904.

British firms in Bushire, Shiraz and Ispahan supply the bulk of the goods consumed in Central and Western Persia. There are also large entries through Kirmanshah and Hamadan, mostly by way of Bagdad. Tabrizi dealers work mostly through Constantinople.

Plain and rough tissues, called *Karbaz*, are woven in Persia, but in decreasing quantities, from home-made and imported twist.

Printed and dyed tissues.—The ancient indigenous dyeing and printing industry which flourished in Persia, the chief centre being Ispahan, has been badly hurt by the increased cost of dyes owing to the heavy tax on indigo and other imported dye stuffs, and by the duty on white and grey goods being relatively heavier than on prints, The industry still exists, but it is in a distinctly depressed condition, and every year sees cheap prints from abroad displacing native-printed goods.

The way in which the local printing trade is conducted resembles very greatly the way in which Persian pedlars conduct their retail business. The printer and dyer buy from the importers, or from wholesale-traders (*bonekdars*) on credit. This in Ispahan and Yezd runs usually for three or four months, in trade with the importer, and for 5 or 6 with the *bonekdar*. The process of printing finished, which may require from one to two months, the *chitsaz* or printer sells his goods to the trader at from 40 to 60 days' credit. These hand printed pieces, very pleasing in design as a rule, are printed from woodblocks. They are practically never prepared for retail in the piece or for sale by the yard, but only in single articles, such as handkerchiefs, curtains, etc., or in made-up lengths suitable for various garments.

Imported prints.—Imported prints are steadily killing the local printing industry; the greatest increase has taken place in Russian prints, particularly in those with a red ground. These have, after a very stiff fight, driven all but the best of British goods out of the northern markets, and have encroached, and continue steadily to do so, on British trade in the southern markets. Russia, making the same sorts of goods for her home markets, and assisting her manufacturers with a liberal hand, is able to dump her goods on the Persian market in a fashion that almost forbids any serious competition on the part of the unassisted British traders.

British traders too, have often lowered, through either compulsion or greed, the quality of their goods, thus getting them a bad name, whilst the quality of Russian goods has been steadily maintained. The Russian Bank, *i.e.*, the Russian State, has, as noted in my remarks on Russian methods, made competition almost impossible, by granting heavy credits on very easy terms. In consequence of this and of the war, the Bank lost heavily through wholesale failures at Tehran in 1904, but this has evidently troubled it little, for it continues to push trade in its old, unscientific but effective way. As there is talk of branches of the Russian Bank being opened in Bushire, Kerman, and other places, it is very possible that before long British traders in the south will have to face keener competition than has yet been their lot.

Russian goods have not yet got a strong hold on, much less a command of, the market in the south; they are, however, being pushed by every means, legitimate and illegitimate, and begin to compete very seriously in what, even three years ago, were solely British markets. There is scarcely a bale of Russian goods sold in Shiraz, Ispahan, Kirman and Bam on which there is not a loss of from 10 to 20 per cent. due to difference in exchange and other causes. The loss, however, falls on the Russian Government, and not on the Russian manufacturer or trader. The Government, looking on such disbursement as money put out at high political interest, counts such loss as gain, so long as it harms British trade and contracts British interests.

In all the southern markets, except Kirman, the months at the end of 1904 and beginning of 1905 were marked by the making of heavy forward contracts with various Moscow firms, the goods to be imported *viâ* the Gulf, whilst the most important of Parsee traders, in Persia, Arbab Jamshed (who has branches everywhere) has taken up the agency for several Russian firms.

There is still, however, a heavy trade in light prints, red twills, indigo shirtings, glazed shirtings, muslins, gauzes, cotton trouserings, etc., which is British and Indian, and into which Russia has not been able to cut.

In plushes, velvets, and like goods, competition is with Germany, and Italy cuts in with certain lines of trouserings in the western markets. The French and Austrians hold the market, a limited one, for good class, highly finished, prints, cretonnes, satinettes, etc.

India supplies the southern markets with indigo dyed shirtings.

South-Eastern Persia, Khorasan, Central, Southern, and South-Western Persia, are fed by way of the Bander Abbas, Bushire, and Ahwaz routes. Of the cotton textile entries at these ports some 10 per cent. are fancy goods, plushes, embroidered nets, etc. The remaining 90 per cent. consists in about equal quantities of white and grey goods, and dyed and printed tissues. It is in what may be called the Russian towns of entry, that printed goods predominate. So far the Russian importation of cotton goods into Persia by way of the Gulf has not been heavy, the Russian Steam Navigation Company's boats having hitherto carried sugar for the most part. In the future, however, Russian cottons will come in by the Gulf route. There are two Russian firms in Bushire and there are Russian Agencies in Shiraz and Ispahan.

As it is, the heavy transit trade in piece goods destined for Khorasan that used to pass from Bander Abbas through Yezd, has, like the tea trade of the same kind, suffered severely and has almost disappeared, Russia having made the Khorasan market her own, and many other places all over Persia.

The administration report on the Persian Gulf for the year 1903-1904 gives the following figures for imports of cotton piece goods :—

Port.	Articles.	Average, five preceding years.	Quantity.	
			1902.	1903.
Bander Abbas	Shirtings, white and grey	Bales . 4,190	3,233	6,783
Ditto	Other sorts	Do. . 2,291	2,579	627
Bushire	Shirtings, white and grey	Packages (Bales) 20,483	14,951	10,611
Ditto	Prints	Ditto . 5,619	7,703	5,312
Ditto	Other sorts	Ditto . 110	7	339
Lingah	Shirtings, white and grey	Ditto . 406	650	760
Ditto	Prints	Ditto . 415	350	560
Ditto	Dyed shirtings	Ditto . 279	225	500
Ditto	Other sorts	Ditto . 774	730	1,595
Arab Coast	Shirtings, white and grey	Ditto . 329	275	275
Ditto	Prints	Ditto . 130	130	130
Ditto	Dyed shirtings	Ditto . 103	100	100
Ditto	Other sorts	Ditto . 777	913	940
Karun Ports *	Cotton goods	Average for 3 years, cwt. 5,936	8,470	10,130

The imports at Bushire, Lingah and the Arab Coast are mainly from Great Britain and India.

Cotton Thread, Yarn and Twist.—Very little cotton sewing thread is imported into Persia, specially by the Gulf, and in this class most of the entries are German.

In yarns, nearly all of which enter through the Gulf Ports, the trade is almost exclusively British and Indian. Most of the imported yarns and twists enter by way of Bander Abbas, being forwarded to Kerman, for use in carpet-weaving, and to Yezd and, in a lesser degree, Khorasan, where it is used in the manufacture of cotton tissues, which are produced from Manchester and Indian twist, woven on hand-looms. Manchester grey water yarn, Nos. 16 to 24, is re-twisted and dyed, for sewing, stocking-making, etc. Bombay grey water yarn No. 16 is used for coarse work, such as sewing shoes, bags, etc., and, re-twisted and doubled, for carpet making. Higher counts, 28 and 32, are used for the manufacture of Persian woven tissues.

Indian yarn comes from Bombay in bales weighing 200, 300, and 400 lbs., each bale contains 20, 30 or 40 bundles of 10 lbs. each. Prices in Bander Abbas, March 1905, per 10 lbs., four months' credit:—

White	. Count	20	Krans	24.
Blue	. „	20	„	20.
Black	. „	30	„	28.
Red	. „	30	„	26.

* (Figures supplied by Messrs. Lynch Brothers, Ahwaz.)

Prices of yarn in Yezd in March 1905 were :—

Prices :—

Count	20-Krs.	26	per	20	bundles,	8 months'	credit.
„	Krs. 25	„	„	20	„	9	„
„	30 „ 35	„	„	20	„	16	„
„	33 „ 30	„	„	30	„	13	„
„	40 „ 35	„	„	40	„	20	„
„	40 „ 40	„	„	40	„	10	„
„	60 „ 50	„	„	60	„	10	„

Total imports of yarn and twist at Bander Abbas averaged for the five years ending December 1901, 7,812 cases. In 1902 the import was 9,037, and in 1903, 6,602 cases.

The Indian imports at Bander Abbas were 3,839 cases, valued at Rs. 435,815 in 1903, and 5,124 cases, valued at Rs. 891,494 in 1904. The Bushire imports from India in 1903 and 1904 amounted to £2,782 and £8,416, respectively.

Imports of yarn and twist at other Gulf Ports were according to the Persian Gulf Administration Report for 1903-1904 :—

Port.	Quantity.		
	Average, five preceding years.	1902.	1903.
Bushire	Packages . 794	1,080	1,036
Lingah	Cwts. . 822	1,284	1,357
Arab Coast	Do. . 266	250	180
Karun (Messrs. Lynch Brothers)	Do. . 960*	1,070	1,744

N.B.—No other official statistics are available.

Drugs.

The trade in European drugs is growing, imports are mostly made in small consignments from Europe to druggists in the big towns, though lately Bombay has been indented upon. Bander Abbas returns show the imports of drugs at that port as valued at £1,550 in 1903, and £1,091 in 1904; and the imports at Bushire from India, were £3,386 and £13,011 in the same years, respectively.

Dyes.

Aniline—The import of aniline dyes, and the export of carpets composed of materials dyed in that way, are prohibited.

Synthetic indigo is not regarded as an aniline, and certain high class alizarine dyes are also exempt, since they prove *fast* when the caustic soda test is applied.

Indigo.—All comes into Persia from India, and is rather low grade from Khairpur and Madras. Figures given by the Consular office, Bushire, show that, in 1903, the imports of indigo and 'Kermez' from India at that port were valued at £18,707, and in 1904 at £26,129.

Figures furnished by the same office gave the imports a Bander Abbas from India as cwt. 514, valued at Rs. 55,822. These rose in 1904 to cwt. 1,266, valued at Rs. 1,44,856.

Import figures for Karun ports, furnished by Messrs. Lynch Bros., Ahwaz, and published in the Administration Report for 1903-1904, show the average for the preceding quinquennial period to have been cwt. 100. In 1902, only 20 cwt. were imported. In 1903, in common with all other Gulf Ports, there was a recovery, and 60 cwt. came in.

Prices in Bander Abbas, November 1904, were, per Indian maund, of 82 lbs.

	Rs.
Madras	140
Khairpur	95

* Average, three years.

In May 1905—	Rs.
Madras	150
Khairpur	100

The indigo grown locally in Bam-Narmashir, and the Kerman valley is very little used, except to supplement Henna, for the dyeing of hair and beards. The dye is extracted by boiling the leaf, and is at once used in its liquid state.

The Indian importations kept on very steadily for years, to a value of about £40,000 per annum. In 1900 there was a sudden great decrease, the market being flooded with aniline dyes. Owing to the prohibition against these, however, the imports of indigo rose again to about their old level. It was feared that the new tariff would affect indigo imports adversely, but the fear has, fortunately, not been realised.

Furniture.

A limited amount of cabinet work and upholstery comes into the country from Europe and India, mainly for the European colony.

Large quantities of candle sticks and glass lamps, classed with framed mirrors as furniture, mostly of a very cheap variety, are imported, coming for the most part from Russia, Austria and Germany. Lamps of a better and more expensive variety come from Austria and the United Kingdom.

As these last, however, come under a special classification, with vases, candelabra, ash trays, etc., paying 20 per cent. *ad valorem* duty or four times that paid by the cheap varieties, they are now being sent out in detached portions, as glass, earthenware, metal, etc., and are put together at destination; thus avoiding the virtually prohibitive import tax.

Glass-ware.

Russia supplies Persia with nearly all the little tumbler-like tea glasses that are in universal request. The glass saucers for these, as well the glass bowls of water pipes, for smoking tobacco (*Kalians*), come from France and Austria. Other glass-ware of a common sort, all in great request, is generally supplied by Russia, Germany and Austria, France supplying the limited market for high class glass-ware, England and India not competing. A very limited quantity of window-glass is also imported for the use of the well-to-do in the large towns. This comes entirely from Russia and Belgium. Imports of glass-ware through Bushire were valued in 1903 at £2,382 and in 1904 at £2,434. Imports of window-glass at the same place represented in 1903 a value of £357, and in 1904 of £1,067. There were no imports at Bander Abbas, except from India, and these were:—

	1903. Rs.	1904. Rs.
Glass-ware	97	3,404
Window-glass	1,264	535

Instruments.

Scientific and Musical.—Demand very limited. No opening for regular business.

Leather goods.

There is a very limited import of leather goods, saddles, etc., mostly by direct indent, for the use of the foreign colony. The import of shoes has been noticed under wearing apparel.

Bushire imports of leather ware in 1903 were valued at £959, and in 1904 at £2,225; at Bander Abbas in 1903 the imports of saddlery, etc., came to 14 cases, and in 1904 to 5 cases, valued at Rs. 610 and Rs. 264, respectively.

Machinery.

Agricultural and other.—Occasional enquiries are made, but there is no demand for machinery. Even agricultural implements of foreign make, such as ploughs, harrows, etc., meet with no demand amongst the people, who are content to continue their primitive agriculture with the most old-fashioned instruments.

Sewing machines, however, and machines for knitting stockings, etc., are in increasing request, and there ought to be a small but good opening for high-class mills for the grinding of henna.

In April 1905, a corporation in Shiraz composed of the leading merchants, was making various enquiries for pumping, milling, and hulling machinery, for working a grant of land that had been secured on the banks of the Shapur river. This is encouraging, for it indicates that Persians are beginning to wake up from their torpor and to realize the advantage of working with up-to-date appliances.

Matches.

The market is about evenly divided between Austrian, Russian, and Swedish matches, with an increasing demand for Russian. In the south the "ship" brand of safety match, imported in cases of 50 gross, which are divided into two, for convenience of mule transport, holds the market. The price in Bushire in May 1905 was quoted at Krans 200 for 500 gross. Russian matches are cheaper than any other, but cannot claim to be better. The Russian customs give a refund of excise of 2½ roubles per case of 1,000 boxes exported to Persia. The average importation of matches for the seven years ending 1903 was:—At Bander Abbas 1,471 cases, and at Bushire 2,096 cases (chiefly from the United Kingdom and India).

Mercery and Hardware.

The term mercery, as used by the Customs authorities embraces a multitude of things, including ink, buckles, glue, sealing wax, pens, spectacles, paints, whips and cinematographs. Most of these articles come from Russia, Germany and Austria. The enamelled ware from Russia is considered to be better than that from other countries. There is a steadily increasing demand for locks, hinges, bolts, etc., of European make.

Cutlery.—British made cutlery has a very high reputation in Persia, but as the Persian cares less for quality than for cheapness, the market, which is growing, has been captured by Germany and Austria.

Metals.

Brass, copper and nickel are imported in sheets,—Ispahan being the largest importer through Bushire.

Iron is imported from France, England and Russia, the latter sending in the heaviest supplies to the northern provinces, where the demand is largest. Tin, zinc and lead, in ingots, come from Belgium, China, France, the Dutch East Indies, Russia and the British Empire, the imports from the last being very heavy. In manufactured tin, zinc, etc., Russia has a decided advantage.

The administration report for 1903-1904 shows imports of metals at Gulf Ports as follows:—

Article.	Port.	Average five preceding years.	Quantity.	
			1902.	1903.
		Cwt.		
Copper	Bander Abbas	807	822	1,321
	Bushire	3,714	2,998	5,861
	Lingah	248	115	60
	Arab Coast	375	350	350
Tin	Bander Abbas	200	66	1,050
	Bushire	885	1,549	1,875
	Lingah	91	37	28
	Arab Coast	62	70	70
Iron	Bander Abbas	4,172	11,974	15,540
	Bushire	11,279	5,605	13,821
	Lingah	2,370	2,874	1,000
	Arab Coast	1,140	1,200	1,400
Brass	Bander Abbas	35	...	415
	Bushire	1,046	1,070	572
	Arab Coast	136	210	210
Other Sorts	Bander Abbas	303	117	86
	Bushire	1,229	3,595	2,020
	Lingah	316	256	185
	Arab Coast	1,215	1,100	1,100
All Metals	Karun	2,305*	1,230	2,046

* Average for preceding three years.

Imports of all metals have shown an upward tendency during the past three years.

Oil, Non-vegetable.

Petroleum.—(Kerosine oil). Entirely from Russia. A Bombay firm long held the trade to the south in their hands, shipping case-oil by their own steamers. Lately, however, Russia has slipped in, both *viâ* the Gulf and from the north, and may now be said to hold the entire market in Persia. Prices have risen considerably; a case containing two tins used to cost 10 Krans; in April 1905 the price was 27 Krans in Shiraz.

Packing Materials.

There is a considerable trade in gunny bags from India and a second-hand trade from the Arab Coast. These latter are re-shipped after being emptied of the rice, etc., received in them. Imports during 1903-1904 were for Bander Abbas, £1,051.

Paper.

Writing papers and envelopes are imported at the Gulf Ports from England and India, most of the Indian imports being of Austrian origin. Austria also imports direct, and the bazaars, even in the south, are full of cheap Russian paper.

Pottery.

Pottery, which is excised, according to weight, is imported mainly from Russia, who has captured the trade, a large one. The Russian wares which are really good, as well as cheap, are now being placed on the southern markets by way of the Gulf Ports. England and India do not compete in this, but there is apparently no reason why they should not, *viâ* the Gulf.

Provisions.

Provisions are very heavily taxed under the new Tariff. There is a small trade, supported entirely by the foreign community, in tinned provisions. This has scarcely been affected by the Tariff, but the import of groceries from India, for the native market in the south, has been hard hit.

Soap.

Imports very small. Native soap is used for the washing of clothes, but, in the better class baths in the large cities, there is a demand for imported bar soap.

Spices.

The import trade in spices is from India entirely, and continues to grow, despite the unduly heavy tax.

Sugar.

Loaf Sugar.—The consumption of sugar continues still to increase in Persia, though the enormous rise in cost prices at the end of 1904 checked imports somewhat.

The reports for 1904 show that Bushire imported loaf sugar to the value of £74,474 against £67,369 in 1903, whilst at Bander Abbas 31,301 cwt. were imported against 44,303 cwt. (*i.e.*, £35,720 and £50,796, respectively), in the previous year, the fall in imports being due to the great rise in cost price.

Russian sugar, though it is disliked and rejected in the South as being too hard, and lacking in sweetening power, continues to command the market in the North, where it enters under the most favourable conditions, being assisted by subsidised transport by drawbacks, and competes with French and Austrian sugar in the central region.

The total quantity of loaf sugar imported into Persia during the year ending March 20th 1904, amounted to 1,247,979 cwt., valued at £1,154,299. The principal contributions to this total are:—Russia, 1,039,643 cwt., (£958,303); France, 178,798 cwt. (£175,053); Germany, 11,364 cwt. (£7,315); and the British Empire 6,605 cwt. (£5,070). Prices in Bander Abbas, landed and duty paid, were per cwt.

	November 1904.		May 1905.		
	Rs.	A.	Rs.	A.	Rs.
Egyptian loaf	12	8	17	8	to 20
Marseilles „	12	12	17	14	„ 21
Germany „	12	6	17	4	„ 19
Russian „	12	0	16	0	„ 18

Prices in Bushire in April-May 1905 ranged somewhat higher than they did in Bander Abbas, and were rising rapidly, on account of the refusal of the merchants to clear goods from the Customs, owing to a dispute regarding the new Customs rules. The market was consequently very short.

Egyptian sugar was unknown to Persia till the end of 1903 when trial shipments met with so much success that they were repeated. There is a distinct opening for Indian sugar, both loaf and crystal, in Persia. Indeed India ought to be able to capture the Southern market if she manufactures economically, so great is the advantage her proximity to Persia gives her. Packing must be carefully done, and it must be borne in mind that nothing but blue wrapped *loaves*, with black and gold labels, are fancied by consumers. Shippers should avoid despatches during the hot weather and monsoons, as sugar is so hygroscopic.

Soft Sugar.—Three-fourths of the trade in the Gulf region in soft and crystal is Austrian. The cost price of Austrian crystallised sugar in Bushire and Bander Abbas in May 1905, was Krs. 4½ to 5½ per Tabrizi man of 6·5 lbs. This sugar, which has displaced the somewhat cheaper granulated variety, is consumed throughout the whole southern and south-eastern region, but the amount imported into Persia as a whole is less than the amount of the Russian sugar. The Customs reports for 1903-1904 show out of a total import of 347,430 cwt. valued at £213,815, of which Austrian sugar amounting to 63,040 cwt. (£ 38,049), and Russian imports amounted to 255,876 cwt. (£ 159,389).

Mauritius sugar has been considered too expensive for the Persian market, but there ought to be a possibility of India manufacturing a crystal sugar to suit this market.

TEA.

The tea trade with Persia, which was checked for a time by the combined influence of the new customs tariff and of years of scarcity in the South, continues to grow and to grow, in a manner that is quite satisfactory to India. Though the incidence of taxation on high grade Lamsars, and white teas, is, according to value, something less than the tax on black teas, it is heavy enough to drive, by increasing their cost, all but the very wealthy to abandon them in favour of cheap and medium priced pekoes and pekoe souchongs. From this change India benefits directly.

The total imports of all teas at all Persian Ports are given by the Customs statistics for the following years ending March the 20th:—

Year.	Weight.	Value.	Sterling.
	lbs.	Krs.	£
1901	Yearly average 5,734,400	12,800,000 =	205,000
1902		13,000,000 =	216,667
1903		14,800,000 =	238,333
1904	6,921,429	16,873,220 =	281,220

These figures are not conclusive, for the increase shewn by them in value is not in proportion to that in quantity, owing to shrinkage in the imports of the more expensive Java and China teas, which have been replaced by Indian teas of medium price and grade and by lower quality China tea.

The increase would have been very much greater had it not been that, since the introduction of the new Customs Tariff, large quantities of tea which used to be landed in Bander Abbas, in transit for Trans-Caspian, Trans-Caucasian and Khorasan markets, whither the tea used to go *viâ* Yezd, are now sent round by sea. The new tariff, and the increased watchfulness of the Russian Customs officials, make tea-running across the border unprofitable, whilst at the same time Russia has attracted tea in transit for North Persia to Batoum by the opening of the Batoum-Julfa, and the Batoum-Ashkabad routes by lessening the cost of carriage.

The Banque d'Escompte de Perse has also been offering to purchase tea in Bombay, Java, or Batoum, on advantageous terms, *i.e.*, at a commission of one per cent. for clients in north Persian provinces, and its offers seem to have been well responded to.

The illicit trade in tea with Asiatic Russia through Persia has died a natural death, to the disadvantage of Yezd, but a not inconsiderable smuggling trade in high grade Lamsars and white China tea has sprung up. These highly priced, and heavily taxed, teas, which are so much to the taste of Persians, are still sold and consumed in the south-eastern and central regions of Persia in quantities far greater than can be accounted for by the Customs figures, or warranted by the wealth of the community.

The Arabs are not drinkers of tea, but within the last two years there has been a great increase in the shipments of tea into Koweit, and other Arabian and Turkish-Arabian Ports. This tea is practically all re-exported, and is run in native craft across the Gulf to little known and unfrequented Banders on the inhospitable Persian Coasts whence it is distributed up country. It may therefore be reasonably argued that the falling off in the import of Appar and of high grade Lamsars is not quite so great as the official figures seem to indicate.

What this apparent falling off amounted to may be gathered from the following figures, showing values of imports at the two great Gulf Ports of Bushire and Bander Abbas:—

	Country.	Value.		Increase.	Decrease.
		1903.	1904.		
		£	£	£	£
Bushire	India	27,601	33,282	5,681	...
	China	11,526	16,585	5,059	...
	Ceylon	3,234	1,803	...	1,426
	Dutch E. Ind.	19,759	7,497	...	12,262
		Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.
Bander Abbas	India	8,27,684	3,18,063	...	509,621
	China	2,43,562	47,916	...	195,646
	Ceylon	...	1,504	1,504	...
	Dutch E. Ind.	1,49,790	57,953	...	91,837
	Russia	...	75	75	...

The figures above quoted represent the movement of the tea trade till the end of December 1904. With the coming of 1905, however, imports of tea at both Ports—(specially Indian tea) and at Bander Abbas in particular,—increased rapidly, and the figures for 1905, when published, will in all likelihood shew a substantial increase.

Tea prices and demands have by now adjusted themselves fairly well to the new Tariff duties, and there appears to be a considerable opening for Anglo-Persian or Indo-Persian firms which, by eliminating the many middle men and their commissions, would deal directly with the Indian grower on the one hand and the Persian merchant on the other. There is not the slightest reason why tea could not be indented for on sample: indenting on, and supplying to, sample would pay. The trouble found by one firm of merchants in Bushire who had entered into correspondence with a Ceylon tea firm, was that the Ceylon dealers would take no notice of the samples and prices of teas in request sent them, but wanted to force what they had for sale on to the markets.

The Statistique Commerciale for the year ending March the 20th, 1904, gives the following figures of tea imports in *Batmans* (Man Tabrizi, 6·5 lbs.) and krans :—

Country.	Batman.	Krans.
	White Tea.	(*Sterling.*)
China	25,975 (= 1,518 cwt.)	623,878 (=£ 10,398)
British Empire	10,179 (= 595 „)	333,716 (=£ 5,562)
Dutch E. Indies	14,308 (= 836 „)	417,482 (=£ 6,958)
Russia	61 (= 3 „	768 (=£ 13)
	Other Teas.	
China	58,653 (= 3,428 cwt.)	640,714 (=£ 10,678)
British Empire	834,685 (=48,793 „)	12,509,748 (=£208,496)
Dutch Indies	50,456 (= 2,949 „)	804,648 (=£ 13,411)
Russia	62,548 (= 3,656 „)	1,536,094 (=£ 25,601)
Turkey	326 (= 19 „)	6,172 (=£ 103)

NOTE :—For Indian-Persian-English currency, Rs. 15 = Krs. 60 = £1.

The following c.i.f. quotations may be taken as representative.

White teas.—Silver tipped leaves comprising both China and Java tea, the former known as '*Appar*,' the latter as No. 1 '*Lamsar*,' average price, per 56 lbs. which is the weight of the China White Chests, is according to quality, from Krs. 350 to Krs. 450. White tea is in demand among the wealthy classes in the larger towns only. It is seldom or never used alone, but is blended with varying quantities of Indian, Java or China black teas.

China tea.—China tea, where it is white tea, has already been spoken of; there is however a substantial import of green and black teas, from China. The Bushire quotation, per chest of 56 lbs., varies according to quality from Krs. 205 to 350. Little is imported *viâ* Bander Abbas.

Batavian tea.—Some Batavian or *Lamsar* Tea, as that of China, is white tea. In the southern markets, China and Batavian Teas have been in close competition, with varying fortune. At one time it seemed as if Batavian tea was becoming prime favourite amongst the wealthy, who were discarding China teas for it. The bazaars of Kirman and Yezd, and, though in a somewhat less degree, Shiraz, were full of the green boxes of *Lamsar* tea, which found a ready sale everywhere. Recently, however, imports from Java have fallen off very considerably. In Bunder Abbas imports of China tea fell off even more heavily than the former, but in Bushire, while Java fell off to the value of £12,262, China made an advance of £5,059, chiefly in green tea and medium pekoes.

Bushire quotations in May 1905 for *Lamsars*, other than No. 1 white, were Krs. 280 to 380 per 80 lbs. according to quality.

Indian tea.—Indian tea forms about 83 per cent., of all the tea consumed in Persia, and has benefitted from the heavy taxation imposed on high-grade *Lamsars*, despite the fact that these are, value for value, less heavily burdened by the Customs Tariff than Indian teas. China and Java teas together used to form about 15 per cent. or 16 per cent. of the tea consumed by Persians. They have now so appreciated in value that the very strong demand, which always existed, for Indian teas (possessing fair flavour and aroma with a fair proportion of orange tips, and costing, landed in the Gulf ports, from 3½ annas to 6½ annas a pound,) has increased. Those who before consumed *Lamsars* and China teas are now forced to turn to Indian tea in increasing numbers.

Indian growers and dealers ought, however, to remember that there is no market in southern Persia for very highly priced teas (7½ annas per pound c.i.f. Bushire or Bander Abbas, is the outside limit) and no demand for broken teas and dust.

It is very evident that a tea answering the description of *Lamsar* a blend of Pekoe and of Orange Pekoe with a good percentage of tips, yielding a pale, straw-coloured liquor, and possessing a delicate flavour, a tea which will bear "stewing" on the samovar, is the tea that is preferred by Persians in every part of the country. They delight almost as much in the look of the leaf as

in the flavour of the liquor. It ought, however, to be possible to get a flowery Orange Pekoe in India, if not from Assam or the Dooars, then from Kangra, Kamaon, Darjeeling or the Dun, that will yield a liquor such as the Persians like, and that will yet be able to pass the customs as black tea. The Persian wants, above all, an "economical" tea, that will stand a lot of *drawing*.

It is important for Indian producers to bear in mind the fact that the taste of consumers varies in Persia, and that what pleases tea drinkers in the North, will not, of necessity, suit the people of the South, and *vice versâ*. They must therefore study the country, paying great attention to the requests of agents and buyers from the different regions, and ask to be furnished frequently with ranges of samples and prices, by which they are to work. I have already said how neglectful, at the very least, some sellers and growers of tea are of samples and prices submitted for their information and guidance by agents and merchants in Persia, and the tendency is, I fear, a common one.

Two cases have come to my notice which give some more or less solid reason for the mistrust with which Indian teas are viewed by the Persians, and I do not think that it will be out of place to mention them for the benefit of "the Trade" here.

(i) At the beginning, traders in Indian teas saw their way to big profits and quick returns. Taking advantage of the increasing favour with which Indian teas were being received, owing to their good quality, certain traders imported the cheapest and lowest grade tea they could find in Bombay and Calcutta, dirt and sweepings most of it, stuff that cost them, landed in Kerman, 4 or 5 annas a pound; this they palmed off on the Persians as *Indian tea* at Rs. 1 to 1·4 per pound. It is small wonder that our tea fell into disrepute and that the Persians showed a preference for clean *Lamsar* IN SEALED BOXES.—I heard this at Bam, and it not only explains in some measure the failure of Indian tea in those parts of Persia, but also emphasizes the necessity that exists for all merchants, interested in any particular trade, having trustworthy agents—or at least supervising agents—of their own in Persia.

(ii) While at Shiraz I found that there was one Indian tea that had entirely disappeared from the market and had not been seen for 15 or 20 years. It was called *chahai siah* by the Persians, and as I could get no sample, though it was described as being a black tea, of large leaf and ugly appearance, poor in fragrance and yielding a very strong dark liquor, I conclude that it was 'Souchong.' It seems that a fairly large quality of this tea used to be consumed, despite its strength and other poor qualities. People might have continued drinking it had not, as report goes, a certain Shahzada Kamara Mirza, Niamat-u-Sultaneh Vazir-i-Jang, declared that on burning the leaf in a pan he had found traces of *zanik*, *i.e.*, orpiment or yellow arsenic. This frightened people and ultimately made the tea unsaleable throughout the whole country.—I do not know what truth there is in this story, but it is certain that this black tea is no longer used, better grades of Indian teas and *Lamsars* having replaced it, as they are doing the *Appar* and green teas of China.

In the South the demand is for a tea low priced, flowery, of even leaf, yielding a pale liquor, and possessing a delicate flavour, whilst broken teas and dust are disliked; absolutely black teas are not cared for much, and the demand for green teas is small.

In the North a black tea, having a pekoe leaf, wiry and even, with few tips, is prime favourite, and leafy kinds are not much in demand.

It would be worth the while of Indian tea traders to have leaflets, printed in *colloquial* Persian, describing the best method of brewing Indian tea, and the advantage of decanting the liquor from off the leaves when the tea was *drawn*, before putting it to stand over the coals in the samovar. The leaflets could be sent for distribution to agents and Consulates all over Persia.

The consumption of tea in Persia is not going to decrease, but will increase. Nomads, Jews and Parsees, who used no tea formerly, are all becoming inveterate tea-drinkers now. The increase in the consumption of opium means an increase also in the consumption of tea, for every person addicted to the opium habit drinks an abnormal quantity of tea.

With the prospect of further development in the Indo-Persian tea trade comes the necessity for fostering that trade in every way. Facilities must be placed in the hands of buyers, and sellers, in their own interest, must see to it that markets do not become overstocked, as was the case lately in Yezd and Tehran.

The necessity for bonded warehouses increases daily. Bonded warehouses will enable importers and shippers to keep stocks at the ports, thus avoiding overstocking the up country markets, providing against depletions, and saving an enormous percentage in money, as the duty, amounting in some cases to 100 per cent., need not be paid until stocks are drawn upon, instead of, as at present, immediately on arrival of consignments at ports.

Russian Tea.—Russian tea, which is put up in packets, and in neat ornamental boxes, of 1 *gervanker* (=88 miscals, or 14 oz.), and of ½ funt and ¼ funt (18 lbs. and 9 lbs. respectively) has met with some success in the northern towns, where it has become fashionable. Small consignments have been tried in Ispahan, Shiraz and the southern markets, but these have not realized the hopes of the consignees, though the tea is sold in Shiraz at 7 Krs. per paper and foil packets of 1 *gervanker*. Of the Russian tea that I have seen, about 60 per cent. has been Ceylon and Indian, and about 40 per cent. China.

Persian Tea.—His Highness Prince Kashif-es-Sultaneh, formerly Persian Consul-General in Bombay, holds a concession for the growing of tea in the Persian Caspian Province, at Lahijan near Resht, where some 300,000 bushes now about five years old have been planted out. The climate of the place resembles somewhat that of the Dooars, and is well suited to the growth of tea; but, though Mr. MacLean, in his report, states that the plants there, three years' old, were doing well, no Persian grown tea is on the market. His Highness is now making enquiries regarding the possibility of securing the assistance of British capital and skill in his enterprise.

Woollen Textiles.

Woollen fabrics are in less demand in Southern Persia than seems natural in a country where, however hot the summers, the winters are long and severe. Only a very small percentage of the population can, however, afford any other than cotton clothing; and in the winter, instead of wearing warm woollen clothes, the people put on many layers of cotton garments. Still the demand for woollen garments and fabrics seems to be slowly growing. The greater quantity of these goods must, however, owing to the poverty of the people, be of the cheapest and most shoddy description. The demand too is more for a smooth faced cloth than for good material. Of woollen textiles, that most in demand is broadcloth, which affords a steady trade, though of recent years fancy suitings and trouserings have become popular, especially amongst the middle classes. The demand for *union* and *shoddy* is great.

British manufacturers hold a good place, but the bulk of the trade in woollen goods is Continental. The best broadcloths, double twills, black woollen, Italians, poplins, alpacas, etc., are generally of British make. Merinos, cashmeres, woollen satins, prints, etc., are Continental, mainly French, Austrian and German. There is a demand for imitation astrakhan for the manufacture of Persian hats—*Kullahs*.

The bulk of the woollen import trade for the North is, naturally, through Tabriz, and is in the hands of Persian merchants, who deal mainly, through Constantinople, with Continental houses.

There is also a steady entry of Russian goods through Resht, for the Tehran Market.

The imports through Gulf ports are mainly done by English houses possessing establishments or agencies in Bushire, Shiraz, Yezd and Ispahan. The trade by the Bander Abbas and Nushki routes shows signs of increasing.

The Customs Statistics for 1903-1904 show imports of woollen piece-goods as follows :—

	Countries.	Batmans.	Krans.
All wool	Afghanistan	2,013	20,639
	Germany	12,496	810,644
	Austria	72,108	4,280,224
	Belgium	405	22,240
	British Empire	21,136	1,469,095
	France	30,209	2,131,437
	Russia	9,079	677,231
	Switzerland	20	1,885
	Turkey	355	24,364
	All countries	147,821	9,437,763
Wool and cotton mixed	Afghanistan	1,476	16,218
	Germany	3,767	144,575
	Austria	17,644	736,665
	Belgium	2,048	85,800
	British Empire	58,314	2,249,647
	United States of America	209	8,200
	France	10,117	479,189
	Italy	841	43,800
	Russia	8,638	318,313
	Turkey	227	16,036
	All countries	103,281	4,098,443

Consular statistics show that in 1903 woollen tissues entered Bushire to the value of £15,081, and in 1904 to the value of £14,536.

At Bander Abbas 71 bales of broad cloth and woollen piece-goods were landed in 1903, and in 1904, 29½ bales.

The new Tariff imposes a duty of 8 Krs. (roughly Rs. 2) per batman (6·5 lbs.) on all tissues of pure wool that are imported into Persia, whilst tissues of wool (mixed with cotton or other vegetable fibre) only pay 3 Krans. All cloths composed of 90 per cent., and over, of wool are treated as all wool. This impost is practically double the old 5 per cent. *ad valorem* duty.

Owing to climatic conditions, and also because the people are richer and so can afford to and do wear woollen clothing more freely in the north than in the south, it is in the northern provinces that India will gain most by pushing her trade in woolen fabrics. This trade might be best managed through agents in Meshed. It must not be forgotten that the largest demand is for goods of low and medium qualities, and that all goods must be smooth faced, as the Persians do not like any but this kind of cloth. It is also important to bear in mind the fact that goods, folded with paper wraps on boards, pay duty on the gross weight, no allowance being made for 'packing,' which adds considerably to the weight.

EXPORTS.

Animals—Horses.

N. B.—For purposes of calculation and transposition from one currency to another, 1,000 'batman' = 6,547 lbs. Avoir. krans 60=Rs. 15=£1 sterling.

The once large export of Persian horses, to India through Bushire, has shrunk very considerably, since 1895, partly on account of the succession of bad seasons in Southern Persia, but chiefly to the increasing value of horses in Persia itself, and to the fact that they are not in demand now for remounts in Bengal cavalry. Most of the horses shipped to Bombay by the British Indian steamers are shipped at Basrah. Still, however, in 1903 horses and foals to the value of £4,333, and in 1904 to the value of £4,202 were exported from Bushire to India.

MULES.

A very useful class of hardy transport animal is bred in the country averaging about 13—14 hands. There are also a limited number of larger mules bred, for riding purposes; these however are relatively so high in price as to be scarcely on the market.

The great mule breeding centres are Kermanshah, Laristan, Burujird, Khamshah, Fars, and the Bakhtiari districts; some 5,000 to 6,000 animals being sold annually.

Prices like that of horses have risen considerably of late years; animals that used to fetch 300 or 400 Krans now cannot be bought for less than 600 to 800 Krans.

In 1904 Bushire exported to India mules to the value of £4,444. Bander Abbas did nothing.

SHEEP AND OXEN.

There is a small export of sheep and oxen from the Gulf Ports to the Islands and the Arab Coast, also from Azerbaijan to Transcaucasia, and to the Russian Transcaspian Provinces from Khorasan. Before the imposition of the embargo in 1903, the average exports from Bushire was about 4,700 head a year; Bander Abbas exports were practically *nil*. In 1904 Bushire exports were valued at £159 to India, as compared with £98 in 1903.

ANIMAL INTESTINES.

Chiefly sheep and goat, some is sent direct from Bushire to Germany and America, but more is handled at Tabriz going *viâ* Constantinople to destination.

OIL SEEDS.

Castor oil-seed.—The castor oil plant is grown and the oil used everywhere in Persia. There is a small export of the seed into Russia from the northern Persian provinces only.

Linseed.—Linseed is grown for export in Bushire and Ram Hormuz. Produce buyers complain that they cannot get clean seed. Exports from Bushire average about 3,000 cwt. yearly, chiefly to India.

CEREALS.

Rice.—Is exported into Russia from Mazandaran and Ghilan. The trade is an important one. The Export in 1903-1904 was 17,127,401 Batmans, or 171,274 Kharvars; there were no exports to speak of from Bushire or Bander Abbas.

Wheat.—Except in years of scarcity, such as the last few years have been, wheat is exported from Bushire and Ahwaz to Great Britain, there being no exports from Bander Abbas. The plains north of Bushire and along the Karun are a magnificent wheat ground, as is also the district of Kermanshah. They are capable of being easily irrigated and these portions of Persia ought to be a great granary. Even with the present scanty irrigation and slovenly methods of cultivation, the return on seed sown is estimated at from 8 to 10 fold. Agriculture is capable of enormous development. Unfortunately, however, the cupidity and ignorance of rulers prevents anything being done. Messrs. Lynch Bros. built up a great grain trade a few years ago; things went well for a time, then the Governor of Arabistan, and other Governors, hungrily eyed the profits. By a hundred tricks known to Persian officialdom, such as the imposition of embargoes, which could only be got round by sufficient tipping, they sought to transfer these profits to their own pockets and ruined the growing trade and the prosperity of the country.

In 1903 the exports of wheat from Bushire were 28,744 cwt. (to the United Kingdom, India and other Persian Ports); the 1904 wheat statistics were not available, except as regards India.

COTTON.

Cotton, raw.—The total amount of raw cotton exported by Persia in the year ending March 20th, 1904, was 240,177 cwt., valued at £323,986; of this, Russia took 237,652 cwt. to the value of £320,236, and the British Empire, 1,338 cwt., valued at £1,391, the remainder going to Turkey.

The average export from the ports of Bushire and Bander Abbas, for the 5 years ending December 1903, was 10,300 cwt. These figures however are not

quite exact, for, in the years 1902-1903 large shipments were taken by the steamers of the Russian Navigation Company, the statistics of which were for some reason unprocurable.

There are two reasons for the difference between the amount of the exports to Russia and those to the British Empire. In the first place Russia admits Persian cotton at favoured rates. Cotton coming in over the European and Black Sea Frontiers pays a duty of Rbls 4·15 per poud, whilst Persian cotton pays only 40 copecks per poud, the difference in its favour being Rbls. 3·75 per pound, *i.e.*, $2\frac{1}{2}d$. per lb. This difference about covers the cost of transport from the most distant of Persian cotton growing centres to Moscow.

The other reason is that the Persian cotton is too weak and too short in staple to be of much use to English or Indian Mills, though a certain amount finds a sale in Bombay for mixing purposes.

In ordinary years Persian cotton forms about 8 per cent. of the total yearly Russian consumption of raw cotton.

The most important cotton centre in Persia is Khorasan, but cotton for the Russian market is grown in central and even in southern Persia, *i.e.* in Ispahan, Yezd, Kashan, Shiraz and Rafsinjan.

It is impossible, in the absence of any thing like records, to give an estimate of the acreage devoted to cotton growing in Persia, or the outturn. Besides the amount exported large quantities are consumed at home.

The following figures give the average between production, export and home consumption in Rafsinjan, the most important of the Kerman cotton producing centres. There the total average annual yield of cotton is 3,000 Kharvars Tabrizi, each Kharvar being equal to 654 lbs. Of this 500 Kharvars are used at home, and the rest exported, the export northward to Russia through Shahrud being usually to the export south to India through Bunder Abbas in the proportion of 9 to 1.

The outbreak of the Russo-Japanese war caused a sudden and absolute cessation of the Russian demand, and some of the cotton sent to Shahrud from Rafsinjan was brought back and tried on the Bombay market. Prices fetched were, however, so unsatisfactory that shippers declared they found it more profitable to keep their cotton on their hands, against the recovery of the Russian market, than to sell it in India.

Mr. Maclean gives it as his opinion that cotton can hardly be grown in the Southern Provinces at remunerative prices for export.

This statement I do not agree with.

In the northern uplands it is impossible, owing to the shortness of the summers and the rigour of the winters, to grow cotton suitable to meet British or Indian requirements.

There are however considerable tracts in the Karun District and the warm Southern Zone, Bam-Narmashahir, Jiruft and Rudbar, where cotton of good length of staple could be grown from good Egyptian, American and Bombay seed in great quantity and to considerable advantage if, simply, the country were irrigated, as it is capable of being, and methods of cultivation improved. In this connection I would call attention to my remarks on irrigation in the General part of my Report.

Given the possession of certain assurances and concessions with a certainty of tenure which, with the support of their Governments, might be secured by English or Indian manufacturers interested in increasing the growth of cotton, British Indian capital might give a very great impetus to its cultivation, and to the development of agriculture generally in the south.

The good that would result from this is evident, and needs no enlarging upon. Equally evident is the necessity for extending the area under cotton everywhere in the world.

Over 150 years ago the Society of Arts offered prizes for the improvement of cotton and for the extension of cotton growing within the British Empire. Ever since then British manufacturers have been striving, to increase the area under cotton wherever they could. For the last three years the Cotton Growing Association have been energetically investigating the cotton producing possibilities of West Africa and the Leeward Islands. It is just possible that in

India the area under cotton may be extended yet more. In West Africa the possibilities for the growth of cotton of high quality are, I believe, very great. The Leeward Islands can also add something to the world's supply of cotton. All this increase will, however, chiefly be absorbed by England. India needs for her manufactures more than she could procure even if the area under Indian cotton be extended. For the extra supply she must look to an outside source, and I believe, she will find this source close at hand in Persia.

In India the output of cotton has remained about the same, 2½ million bales, for the last 40 years. In Egypt the output has doubled in thirty years, and is now about 700,000 bales. The United States, which in 1857 produced some 4,632,300 bales, now grow 11,000,000 bales.

All this increase is very satisfactory. It is not, however, nearly enough. The world's demand for manufactured cotton cannot be satisfied by the present production of raw cotton. Europe is still dependent for its supply of raw cotton upon the favour of the United States.

The Americans have become manufacturers as well as growers; but, while they have increased their production of cotton, they have not increased the export of the raw material. They show more clearly every day that they prefer to send their cotton out in a manufactured state.

The following extract is taken from "The Pioneer," July 30th, 1905 :—

"The United States Government report on the cotton prospects, showing that the yield would amount to only 10,000,000 bales, or a percentage of 77, as against 88 last year, caused great excitement on the American and Lancashire markets, prices advancing ½*d.* per pound.

In New York, where such a statement was entirely unexpected, most traders having anticipated an improvement instead of deterioration, much speculation was indulged in as to the cause of the report, and hints were even made of corruption in official quarters.

In discussing the situation, writes a New York correspondent, many traders hint that the Agricultural Department understimate the crops with the object of "regaining the good opinion of the southern growers, who were bringing charges against the department." Then again, I hear much talk on the part of cotton men regarding the alleged existence of a corrupt ring of statistical agents employed in manipulating the market. To keep their prestige with the department it is stated that they sent in correct reports occasionally, and then, to suit their own purpose, they manipulated the reports.

One other reason given in many well-informed quarters as explaining the market decline in the crop prospects, as indicated by the new figures, deserves notice. For some time, as I mentioned in a previous cablegram there have been reports of "leakages" from the Agricultural Department at Washington. Cotton-growers are boldly stating that the Government cotton reports have been given out to favoured speculators in advance. It is known that the secret police and the Treasury Department have been working hard to get to the bottom of these charges, and an intimation is already given that two Government officials are strongly implicated. The report has not yet been presented, but it is believed by many that the alleged ring of statistical investigators has been demoralised by the investigation, and that former reports were unreasonably favourable, while the present figures indicate the results attained without manipulation of the figures by correspondents. In proof of such demoralisation is cited the fact that the report was this time apparently unknown in advance.

One statement much quoted is by Mr. Richard Cheatham, Secretary of the Southern Cotton Association, who declares that the Government report is absolutely reliable. "If anything," he says, "the conditions in the cotton belt are a great deal worse than the 77 per cent. reported. Meantime, it is expected that prices of cotton goods will steadily increase."

Shortages of cotton have become increasingly common in the United Kingdom. These shortages have entailed short running of mills, resulting in enormous loss. This loss is estimated by a writer in the Journal of the Society of Arts, who states authoritatively that if the English cotton mills were

compelled to run three-fourths time instead of full time, the spinners, manufacturers, operators, collectively, would lose £300,000 a week, or £15,000,000 per annum.

Even in India during the last thirty years, there have been shortages, and the prices of raw cotton have risen to serious heights. It is as necessary for India to supplement the sources of her cotton supply as it is for England to do so. The easiest way for her to get over this difficulty, is, apart from growing more cotton herself, the one I have pointed out, namely, the growing of cotton in the warm belt of South-Eastern and South-Western Persia.

The soil and climate of these regions are suitable; the rain-fall is as much to be depended on as, and is not lighter than, that of the Egyptian cotton regions. Irrigation works of an economical character would ensure a sufficient water supply for the fields. Ample agricultural labour would be procurable. Transport would not offer any difficulty, for the best cotton tracts are situated within reasonable distance of the sea board.

Dyes.

Henna.—Is produced in great quantities in Khabis, Bam-Narmashahir, Ispahan and other districts. It is ground and prepared, but is not grown in Yezd. It is exported *viâ* Resht and Tabriz to the Moslem regions of Russia and into Turkey. The dye is used by Mahomedans to stain their hands and feet, and to colour their beards, partly as a beautifier and partly on account of religious ordinances. It dyes hair a red orange, and, when used in conjunction with indigo, a glossy purple black.

Henna is lumped with other clouring and dyeing materials in Export figures, and cannot be separated. From Khabis, however, there is an annual export of between 30,000 and 40,000 lbs. of leaf to Khorasan, and 270,000 lbs. to Yezd, whilst in Bam-Narmashir 3,250,000 lbs. are produced, four-fifths of which go to Yezd to be ground.

Prices, per Tabriz man in Bushire and Bander Abbas, vary from krans 2½ to 4 (*i.e.*, 1½ to 2½ annas a pound) according to quality:—

The price of leaf in Bam is from 2 to 2½ krans, and of ground henna 3 to 3½ krans per Tabriz man. Most of the leaf goes to Yezd unground, and the price charged there for grinding and preparation is 1½ krans, per Tabriz man. There is, I believe, an opening for henna mills in Bam, and I am sure the Consular Agent (newly appointed) would gladly do all in his power to help anyone setting up a mill.

Madder.—Is grown in many parts of Persia and is found wild on the hills in most parts of the Kerman Province. Small quantities find their way to Europe from the Karun, and there is a trade in madder from Tabriz to Russia. Shiraz is a very important centre of the madder trade; none is produced in the vicinity, but the Shiraz merchants handle about 1,000 cwt. of the root yearly, importing it from Ispahan, Yezd and Abargu. Most of this is used in Fars, but about 300 cwt. are exported, mostly to Bombay. Shiraz prices in April 1905 were krans 85 to 95 per Kharvar Tabrizi (650 lbs.), *i.e.*, from Rs. 2-10 to Rs. 3-6 per Indian maund.

Fish.

The Russian firm of Lianozoff hold the lease of the valuable fisheries on the Caspian seaboard, and from here the chief towns of Russia draw their supplies of caviare, sturgeon, etc. The lease expires in 1925: These Caspian fish are admitted through the Russian Customs on specially favourable terms. The climate of the Gulf makes the curing of fish quite hopeless, so no trade may be looked for in this direction.

Fruit.

Almonds.—Exported through Bushire and Bander Abbas to India from Fars, Yezd, Laristan, and the Province of Kerman. From Tabriz and Azerbaijan they are sent into Russia. Almonds are exported both shelled and unshelled. Kernels are about four times as expensive as whole nuts, but they deteriorate after a year's keeping.

Pistachios.—Are also exported from the same regions through the same ports, and to the same countries as are almonds. Pistachios of a particularly fine quality are grown in the south central region. (The finest in the world

are said to come from Sirjan and Rafsinjan.) It is unfortunately impossible to export Pistachios except in the shell.

The value of almonds and Pistachios exported to India through Bushire in 1903 was £12,366 sterling and £27,780 in 1904. The Bander Abbas figures for the same years were £13,080 and £25,811, respectively.

The average price of almond kernels is 80*s.* per cwt., and of pistachios 75*s.* per cwt.

Apricots, dried.—The apricots are split, stoned, dried, bagged, and then exported. Nearly all go to Russia, as the fruit is not sufficiently well prepared to suit the English or Amrican markets. Apricot-kernels are also exported to Russia.

Dates.—There is an export from the Gulf to India, and also to Britain and Red Sea ports. The great date exporting centre is, however, round Mohammerah, whilst great quantities of Oman dates are shipped mainly to America from Maskat. In 1904 the prices were 3 to 4*s.* per cwt.; exports to India, were valued at :—

	1903. Rs.	1904. Rs.
From Bander Abbas	14,256	41,520
„ Bushire	11,205	26,715

Walnuts.—North Persia exports about 10,000 cwt. a year to Russia. I am surprised, judging from the excellent quality of the Walnuts grown in the province of Kerman that there is not a considerable export trade through Bander Abbas.

Raisins and Currants.—Are exported through Bander Abbas to India, but the bulk of the export trade is with Russia. The chief markets are Tabriz, Kazvin, Ispahan, Meshed and Kerman, the first being the most important. In the neighbouhood of Tabriz new vineyards are being opened every year, so profitable has the production of raisins proved. Trade, there, is in the hands of Armenians. Around Ispahan the Armenians, also, have the trade in their hands; but in the neighbourhood of Shiraz, it is monopolized by the Jews, whilst in the neighbourhood of Kerman and Yezd the Parsees almost monopolise the production of wine and the preparation of raisins.

There are two types of raisin (1), the Sultana called *Sabzeh* or *Kishmish*, and (2) the Muscatel or *Nabiz*. It is in the production of the first that great success has been achieved. The grapes for Sultanas are gathered when ripe, dipped in a solution of potash, dried, sorted, and packed in boxes. These boxes when destined for the Russian market, contain one poud (36 lbs.) net, and if for the European market, 12½ Kilos (27½ lbs.) The price, which has been steadily rising, received a check when the war in the Far East stopped all exports to Russia, and went back from nearly 11*s.* a cwt., to 8*s.* The export of raisins and currants in 1903 were 2,197 cwt. from Bushire and Lingah and 14,626 cwt. from Bander Abbas. In 1904 Bander Abbas exported 25,123 cwt. valued at Rs. 192,829.

GUMS.

Gum Tragacanth.—The shrub producing this gum is found wild in nearly every part of Persia. Though the process by which white gum is procured proves destructive to the older shrubs which are burnt down to get it, so extensive are the regions still untouched, and owing to the fact that it is an indigenous and self-propagating plant, there is no probability of Persia being unable to continue to export in the future quantities as large as, if not larger than, she has exported in the past. The best gum comes from Kermanshah; the next best from Rafsinjan and Fars. Although the shrub is to be found in large quantities all over the hills in Bam Narmashahir and Jiruft, it has not yet been cropped for export. Shiraz is a great collecting, sorting and distributing centre, the gum being brought there from as far away as Bahramabad, and exported through Bushire. Prices in Shiraz in 1905 were—

Class	I	Krs.	28 to 34	per	man Tabrizi	(6·5 lbs.)
„	II	„	20 to 28	„	„	„
„	III	„	18 to 26	„	„	„
„	IV	„	15 to 20	„	„	„
„	V	„	13 to 17	„	„	„

(*N. B.*—Kr. 1 per man Tabrizi = $\frac{8}{13}$ annas per lb.)

It is exported to India and Europe, Russia taking about a quarter of the total. Very little is exported *viâ* Bander Abbas.

Gum Arabic.—Exported to Europe from Farz and the Bakhtiari country. Prices 1½ to 2½ krans per man Tabrizi.

Gum Ganjideh.—This gum is of no economic value, but is used simply as an adulterant for opium. Being itself tasteless and odourless, its presence cannot be detected, when prepared and mixed with opium, except by chemical analysis. Opium adulterated with Ganjideh passes the blotting paper test and so finds, or used to find, its way through the Chinese Customs. Four years back the adulteration of opium with Ganjideh was carried to such excessive lengths, I am told, that a considerable quantity of the opium destined for the Chinese market contained 90 per cent. of Ganjideh. Recently however the adulteration of opium, at least to such an extreme, has been checked, mainly owing to the refusal by Chinese importers of some very heavy shipments, which were thrown back on the hands of the Persians. The Persian Customs have also been doing something to check the wholesale adulteration of opium, and the price of Ganjideh is now about an eighth of what it was two years ago.

Exports of all gums from Bushire, during 1904 were valued at £64,869, showing an appreciation of £26,823 over the previous year's figures.

There was, on the other hand, a decrease in the exports of gum through Bander-Abbas, for, whereas in 1903 the shipments amounted to 5,885 cwt. they fell to 3,296 cwt. in 1904.

Hides, Skins and Leather.

Goat and sheep skins.—Are exported to India and the Arab Coasts from the Gulf Ports and *viâ* Nushki and Quetta, and go into Russia, from Khorasan and Azerbaijan.

The skins are made up salted and dried, into bales of 70 pieces, weighing about 250-lbs. gross. The price is about 5 krans a skin, but prices vary very much and are always changing.

There is an import and export into Russia of sheep and goat skins, tanned and dyed in Tabríz and Hamadan. These skins are made up into bundles of five skins each. Sheep skins are quoted at from krans 15 to krans 25 and goat skins at from krans 15 to krans 34 per bundle.

Dried and salted skins are exported from the Gulf to India and the Arab Coasts in some considerable quantity, the Bushire export in 1904 was estimated at 17,816 goat skins, at krans 12 to krans 24 per bundle of 5. There is little or no export of hides.

In 1903 and 1904, Bander Abbas exported to India hides and skins valued at Rs. 30,082 and Rs. 8,532 respectively, none being exported from there to other countries in the former year, and only one package to the Arab Coast in the latter. Exports from Bushire to all countries were :—

Skins, raw and undressed, £8,050 in 1903 and £17,816 in 1904.

Skins, tanned and prepared, £419 in 1903 and £1,118 in 1904.

Lamb skins.—Nearly all the lamb skins produced in Persia, or Koweit, go in the first instance to Russia, where they are properly dressed and prepared at Astrakhan, there seemingly being no market for them, undressed, in the United Kingdom.

Shiraz is the centre for a valuable trade in these skins.

The true Astrakan skins, which will retain the natural close curl of the wool after cleaning, are got only from Arab flocks; the Turki nomads seem unable to breed this stock.

Fars exports between 7,000 and 9,000 skins yearly, and the skins from Shiraz rank next in quality to those of Bokhara on the Moscow market. The total value of lamb skins exported to Russia in 1903-1904 is estimated by the Persian Customs at krans 2,902,330.

The skins are collected by buying agents who go round the districts. After being cleaned, each skin is sewn on to a large sheet of paper, and are they then

packed in bales containing about 130 pairs. Prices vary very much, ranging from krans 20 per pair of skins to krans 50; they depend entirely on the quality of the skin.

Other skins.—There is a trade in prepared fox, wolf, and sable skins from Northern and Central Persia, which amounted in 1903-1904 to krans 2,855,773 with Russia, and krans 17,495 with the British Empire.

Minerals.

Practically all the mineral exports of Persia are: red oxide, about 4,000 tons annually from Hormuz, and perhaps 1,500 tons of salt from Kishm. The mining rights in both Islands are sold periodically by the Persian Government.

Persia is a highly mineralised country, but, though difficulties of transport, water, and fuel forbid any very great immediate development of mining in most parts of the country, more might be done than now is done with Persian minerals. At present Persia imports considerably more metal in ingots, sheets, etc., than she produces; this ought not to be, and could be, remedied.

Opium.

One of the most important of Persian exports is opium, exported mainly to China, the United Kingdom, America and Belgium. The principal opium markets are Ispahan, Shiraz, Yezd, Rafsinjan, Hamadan and Meshed. The crop occupies the ground according to latitude and altitude, for from eight to nine months, say October to June.

Opium is an expensive and troublesome crop to grow, needing much care, water, and manure, and is easily ruined in the field by storms and frost, whilst the market prices are liable to sudden violent fluctuations, the Persians being almost entirely in the hands of Hong Kong and London buyers. The drug and crop are however easily disposed of for cash by the grower, and opium, unlike cereals, does not form a medium in which the Governors of districts may demand the payment of taxation. This is the chief reason why the Persian cultivator grows it so extensively.

Three lbs. of raw opium will yield 2 lbs. of the prepared drug.

For export to China, opium is packed in tin-lined cases, containing 140¼ lbs. nett. The export duty is krans 60 per Batman (6·5 lbs.) which comes to something between 14 per cent. and 20 per cent. *ad valorem*, as a rule, though the old impost used to be 5 per cent. only. This increased taxation has, however, not caused any decrease in production. It would have been better for Persia had the tax fallen not on the exporter, but on the producer of the drug.

In 1903, Bander Abbas exported 988 chests of opium, and 339 chests in 1904. The average of exports, for the five years preceding 1902, according to the Gulf administration report for 1903-1904 was:—Bushire 5,507 cwt., Bander Abbas 458 chests, and for the seven years ending 1903, 4,827 cwt., and 590 chests, respectively.

Price in Shiraz, April 12th, 1905, ranged, according to quality from krans 200 to krans 340 per Man Shirazi, of 7·25 lbs.

In December 1904, in Bahramabad, Rafsinjan division of Kerman, where some 60 Man Shirazi (nearly 442 lbs.) of the drug are prepared, the price quoted for good class opium, was krans 120 per Tabriz Man of 6·5 lbs.

Opium lends itself to adulteration, and the favourite medium has been gum Ganjideh, *vide* my remarks thereon.

Pearls and Shells.

There are valuable fisheries on the Persian coast above Lingah. These are at present closed. When the Lingah fisheries are working, the pearls, like those at Bahrein, are bought almost entirely by Indian traders.

Shells.—(Mother of pearl, mussel and oyster), are brought in increasing quantity by the fishing boats and are exported to Britain, Germany, and Russia. A German firm has lately established itself in Bahrein, Lingah, and Bushire, and is paying great attention to shell exports.

PERFUMES.

Rose water is exported to India in flasks and jars from Shiraz, chiefly. The latest available figures are :—

—	1901.	1902.	1903.	1904.	1905.
	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.
Karachi (Sind) . . .	8,738	7,895	11,185	13,721	12,312
Bombay	1,25,600	1,26,082	1,24,954	1,39,382	1,05,923

SILK.

The silk worm is extensively reared in the north of Persia, in Ghilán and Mazandaran, and to a less extent, in other places. These are considerable openings for the development of sericulture in Southern Persia.

A little over 30 years ago the industry was nearly ruined by disease, but has recovered within the last 12 years. Now there is a large export trade in cocoons to Marseilles and Milan. Silkworms eggs are imported from Asia Minor, French eggs not having given satisfaction. The average price for cocoons dried, sorted, cleaned, and packed, is reported to be in the North about Krs. 100 to Krs. 120 per Man Shah, or 13 lbs. Three lbs of fresh cocoons, when dried weigh 1 lb.

There is a large consumption of reeled and waste silk in Persia itself, about half the production in ordinary years being forwarded to weavers at Tabriz, Kashan, Ispahan, Yezd, Kerman, Meshed and Baghdad, which last place draws its supply through Kermanshah.

There is a small export duty on cocoons, amounting to about 1½ per cent. *ad valorem.*

Tissues.—Silk tissues, manufactured in Yezd and Kashan are exported to Afghanistan, India and Khorasan. On the whole Yezd silks cannot compare with China or Indian in price or quality,

Silk piece goods to the value of Rs. 9,915 in 1903, and Rs. 10,901 in 1904 were exported from Bander Abbas to India. All of this came from Yezd. The exports through Bushire in the same years were valued at £16 and £93.

TOBACCO.

Tobacco.—The Gulf Administration Report 1903-1904 gives the average exports of Persian tobacco :—

—	Average for 5 years ending 1901.	In 1902.	In 1903.
	cwt.	cwt.	cwt.
Bander Abbas	1,268	718	587
Karun ports	1,108	2,160	730
Bushire	13,480	8,963	12,879
Lingah	4,562	5,500	44,000

The tobacco nearly all goes to Turkey, Egypt, and Cyprus. The 'Turkish Régie' has the monopoly of the export trade, and exports are therefore made strictly according to demand. The Anglo-Persian tobacco monopoly, the 'Societé de tambac,' which was engineered a few years back, fell through owing, it is said, to faulty management. Persian tobacco is got from a plant which is of a different species from that of India or Java. The Persians call the plant which yields Shirazi and Resht tobacco "tombac," whilst their name for the species resembling Indian tobacco is "teetoon." The best Persian tobacco is very good, even, mild, well flavoured and well coloured. The tobacco of Shiraz is the best. The supply of about 36,000 bags annually, does not, however, equal the home market demand, and little of the tobacco exported as "Shirazi," has been grown in that region. Prices of tobacco in Shiraz range, accordingly to quality from Krs. 3 to Krs. 8 per Tabriz Man.

WOOL.

Wool, Raw.—Part of the Persian export trade in wool is Afghan, which is imported into Khorasan, and re-exported raw or manufactured to Russia. Afghan wool is also brought down to Bandar Abbas by the caravans, that come in early winter and spring, from the north. Shipments are made from Bandar Abbas to Bombay, and from Bushire to Britain.

The raw and waste wool exported from Bushire in the year ending December 1904 was valued at £4,542, showing an increase of £3,414, over the previous year; from Bander Abbas the exports were cwt. 4,372 in 1904 against cwt. 4,196 in 1903, valued at £7,489 and £6,782, respectively, *i.e.*, an increase in 1904 of £707.

The Customs administration's statistics for the year ending March 20th, 1904, show exports of raw wool from all Persia as follows:—

	cwt.	Value £
British Empire	11,450	13,086
Russia	45,158	46,345
Turkey	47,211	98,429
Afghanistan	172	563
Total .	103,992	£158,423

Most of the wool finding an outlet through Bander Abbas is of Afghan produce, but some comes from Seistan, the Sarhad, Khorasan, Rudbar and Jiruft. Little or no Kermâni wool finds its way to the sea, being nearly all utilised in the manufacture of carpets and shawls. There used at one time to be a fairly heavy export of wool from Kerman, and much more Khorasan wool was brought down to the coast than is now the case. The reduction in the Kerman export is due to two causes. The first is a long succession of bad years, seasons of drought and of disease among the flocks, that killed off live stock wholesale, and reduced the quantity and quality of the wool yielded by the survivors. The second is the considerable increase that has of late years occurred in the manufacture of carpets, with the consequent increased home demand for raw material.

The falling off in the quantity of Khorasan and Afghan wool brought by the winter caravans to Bander Abbas is due entirely to the increased export of wool northwards into Russia,—Meshed being the greatest wool market in Persia. Most of this wool passes through Russia to the American, British and German markets.

The raw wool which is shipped from Bushire is not, as is commonly supposed, sent down from Shiraz. The clip is collected in the country south of Shiraz, and sent down for sale or comes down on consignment, to the port, just before the nomad tribes move up from the warm country northwards to their resorts in the hills, and again when they return in autumn.

Wool is also exported in quantity from other Persian Gulf ports. Most of this comes, however, from Turkish Arabia and Mesopotamia, though a large portion of Bakhtiari wool, particularly of the lower grades, comes down from Basrah. The wool of southern Persia is of three classes: *Arab* or *Bagdadi*, *Shustri*, and *Persian*. These classes are each again divided into two sub-heads according to quality. The terms applied to Persian wool are *Kurk* and *Pasham*. Pasham is the outer and coarser wool and is dirtier than Kurk *i.e.*, the down-like wool underlying it. In Khorasan the terms used are *Joolgah* for the fine, and *Badgashi* for the coarser wool; Afghan wool is as a rule finer, but dirtier and more mixed with greasy locks, than that of Khorasan. In Khorasan there are two crops of each kind, known as 'Bahari' (or spring) and 'Paizi' (or autumn). The spring clip is longer in staple but the autumn clip is cleaner, and therefore commands a better price. As in Khorasan, so in Fars and the territories finding the sea at Bushire, the wool trade is in the hands of the Persians, who buy the clip from nomad and other growers, financing them by cash advances, made often ten months before delivery. The wool is bought from growers in bundles of 100 fleeces, and sorted for export. It is sometimes, but not always, scoured and rough-cleaned before exportation.

The Bander Abbas wool trade is managed by Hindu traders, settled there and at Kerman. These men do not finance the growers, but buy for cash in the shearing season, or, more frequently, make their purchases from the caravans that come down to the port, shipping in their turn sometimes to order, but more often sending the wool as a speculation to Bombay or Karachi.

The wool coming down to Bushire and Bander Abbas is no exception to the general rule, according to which dishonest traders, in order to make weight, add to the naturally dirty fleeces dead and fallen wool and locks, lowering the class of the wool, causing increased trouble in sorting, and loss in selling it.

Wool buying in the south is declared to be a very unsatisfactory business, and foreign purchasers could only hope to escape loss by buying through agents at the ports. It is hopeless for them to try and approach the producer themselves.

Were the southern region developed by irrigation, there would spring up a considerable trade in raw wool which would supplement the short stocks of Indian wool, and might leave a certain amount for shipment to England.

Prices at Bushire and Bander Abbas *f. o. b.* Bombay, at the close of the 1904-1905 season were: *Kurk* Rs. 28 per factory maund of 82 lbs., and *Pasham* (coarse) Rs. 19.

Coarse wool is shipped from Bander Abbas in packages of 500 lbs. freight and charges to Bombay amount to Rs. 5 per package. Fine wool is shipped in packages of 650 lbs.:—freight and charges to Bombay Rs. 6 per package.

Carpets and Shawls.

There has been a steady increase in the export of these of late years. The value in Krans of exports of carpets and table-covers, according to Persian Customs statistics, for the year ending March 20th are:—

	Krs.
1901	11,368,000
1902	13,879,000
1903	13,347,000
1904	22,412,853
Shawls 1904	642,964

The weaving of carpets is the greatest of Persian industries, is carried on in every part of the country, but more specially is the art exercised in the region round Ferhan and Sultanabad, and in Hamadan, Kurdistan, Fars, Tabriz, Kerman, Baktharistan and Bashakird.

The finest Kerman carpets are perhaps the best carpets in the world, excellent alike in material, workmanship and design. In Constantinople, the world's great carpet mart, they command higher prices than any other from Persia.

The carpet weaving industry in Tabriz is a new one, but it has made great progress since its inauguration. The carpets are of fine workmanship, and the best, being made mostly of the peculiarly soft fine wool of Meshed and Khorasan, are of superior value and fetch high prices. The ordinary grade Tabriz carpets are, however, not equal to ordinary Sultanabad carpets. Being made of hard-textured local wool from Urmiah, Khoi and Soujboulak, they are stiff and unpliable, and are apt to crack if folded and packed flat.

Sultanabad and Farhan carpets are well known in European markets; they are made of all grades, but the bulk are of ordinary quality.

The Farhan district, in which Sultanabad is situated, does not produce nearly enough wool for its needs, and draws large supplementary supplies from the districts of Kanchar, Ispahan, and Kermanshah. The wool usually comes in the form of yarn.

The price of wool in Sultanabad, as well as in Kerman, has more than doubled within the last ten years.

The yarn required for carpet weaving must be good white wool, as brown or dark wool can only be dyed in dark colours. Even for red dyes, the

wool must be white. About a quarter of the wool employed in carpet-making is lost in clippings which are all waste. As these clippings must amount to a considerable quantity, it might be worth while seeing if anything could be done with them.

In Kerman, Tabriz and Sultanabad, there are carpet factories, but there and elsewhere the bulk of the carpet weaving industry is carried on in the weavers' homes. The work is done entirely on hand looms, and for the most part by women and children. The "manufacturer" supplies the weaver with the design, and the quantities of wool of various colours required for the work in hand, so as to ensure the same shades of colours being used throughout. He also makes advances on account of the price arranged, so that the price of the carpet is, often nearly all paid for whilst it is still on the loom. This practice of working in weavers' homes is not a satisfactory one, as supervision cannot be properly carried on there and the work is apt to be slovenly and dilatory, lacking in skill and finish. The untrustworthy weaver will, too, sell the good and well dyed wool entrusted to him, substituting inferior material or aniline dyes. As often as not he will sell the finished work, against which he has drawn advances, and set up a new piece which is delivered long after contract time has expired.

The best work is done in the factories, where the boys employed on the work attend and accomplish their task under the direction and supervision of a fore-man, known as the *ustad*. There seems to be no reason why more factory work should not be done, or why women should not attend at suitably equipped factories. This would mean considerable economy of time and of material, and increase skill and finish of work, all of which ought to make the factory prosper. No foreigner could, however, hope to start such a factory. The Mullahs would raise a coil against him in a very short time.

Messrs. Zeigler & Co., of Manchester, who have their carpet making headquarters at Sultanabad, are the only European house now competing with Persians in the carpet industry. They have a factory, but most of their work is done outside, according to the methods already described. They usually employ 3,000 looms, and about 10,000 hands. They buy and dye, on their own premises, all wool employed in their carpets, and their designs are registered and protected.

Wages paid to workmen vary considerably. In Kerman the average is Krans 8 to 10 per month, with the *Nehar* or midday meal thrown in, whilst the '*ustad*' gets Krans 40 to 50, according to his skill.

In Kerman few women or girls are employed on the 1,000 looms in the city. Most of the "Nomad" rugs are, however, the products of feminine fingers. It is declared that men and boys do stronger and, at the same time, more delicate work than women.

The Kerman patterns are very ancient and have been handed down orally from father to son from many generations, indeed for centuries. The work is done entirely from a pattern which is recited in a low chant, from memory, and used formerly to be neither drawn nor written; now, however, the patterns are dictated from designs which are most skilfully drawn to scale, and coloured. As before, the *ustad* still chants the design, colours, and numbers of threads to be used, the operators repeating them parrot-like after him. It appeared to me nothing short of marvellous how deftly and correctly these oral instructions were executed.

The usual size of Kerman carpet is 7 feet by 4½ feet. The unit of measurement is the carpet Zar of 39 inches by 19½ inches.

The ordinary quality of Kerman woollen carpet contains 640 stitches to the Zar, but good carpets contain from 900 to 1,500 stitches. These last of course take long to make, and are extremely expensive. The price per Zar for ordinary quality carpets averages £1, but have fluctuated very considerably. For the fine and superfine articles the price will run up to £3, £5, and £6 per Zar. Carpets of most of these last qualities are, however, too expensive for the ordinary market requirements.

The woof of Kerman carpets is nearly always cotton, and is made from Manchester and Bombay yarn and twist; the warp and pile are wool. The

carpets are woven on upright looms, and are generally made in pairs, in order to save the wages of the *ustad*, two carpets being woven from one recitation. The pieces are set up on looms indiscriminately, face or back to the front. The rate of progress of weaving may be put at for ordinary qualities, 18 square feet a month, fine and intricate work taking from twice to four times as long.

Of the silk carpets of Kerman Lord Curzon has said, with truth, that he does not "think that a more exquisite fabric has ever been woven by human hands." These carpets are used for hangings and portières. They cost about two or three times as much as woollen carpets, and contain from 225 to 400 stitches to the square inch. These silk carpets are never stocked, but are made to order.

The Kerman shawls too, though inferior to the best Kashmir shawls are of surprising beauty, fineness and richness.

The average value of the outturn of Kerman carpets may be put at something over £50,000 a year. It has increased considerably of late years, though there have been periods during which the trade has not been prosperous, and many small weavers have been forced to suspend business. One of these periods came to an end with the autumn of 1904, when the Kerman carpet manufacturers suffered from a heavy fall in prices consequent on a glutted and stagnant market in Constantinople, which followed on the refusal, by Europe and America, of a quantity of carpets the wool of which had been dyed with aniline material. The Cholera epidemic also hit the Kerman weavers hard.

The output of Kerman shawls, in the production of which some 3,000 looms are employed, may be reckoned at £60,000 per annum. My authority for the figures is Major P. M. Sykes, C.M.G., late His Britannic Majesty's consul at Kerman. The greater quantity of Kerman shawls are made to order for Tehran, where they are used for presentation as *Khilats* or robes of honour at No-roz (New Year's Day).

Though the Kermanis show an aptitude in the manufacture of carpets, they show none in their disposal, as this business is almost entirely in the hands of Turk merchants from Tabriz. The Tabriz market is indeed the largest one for carpets in Persia, and it has been through here that the great increase in the export of carpets, which has marked recent years, has taken place. An increase, however, also took place, at the Gulf ports.

Tabriz sells both through Constantinople and direct to other foreign markets—America and France being the largest buyers. Shiraz exports carpets *viâ* the Gulf to Egypt and Constantinople, and Kerman also ships carpets through Bander Abbas. The bulk of the outturn from Kerman, and other carpet-manufacturing centres, is, however, either consigned to or sold at Tabriz, for the Constantinople market.

In 1904 the export of carpets through Bander Abbas rose suddenly from 268 bales to 516 bales, nearly all the increase going to Switzerland, a country which had never imported carpets direct. Bushire in 1903 exported 625 bales of carpets, and 618 bales in 1904.

Other woollen textiles.—Other woollen fabrics, besides carpets and shawls, are produced in small quantities, particularly a butter-nut coloured, narrow-width fabric resembling Kashmiri *pashmina*, and a somewhat coarser and thinner variety with a crêpe surface, which is used for the making of *Abbas*, the cloak in universal request amongst the Persians as a wrap. Woollen socks, comforters, and gloves are produced from home-grown and home-dyed wool. The extremely gaudy native socks or *jurrab* is, however, going out of fashion, natives preferring European made socks of grey or black.

RESUMÈ.

It is evident from a study of trade movements in Persia that the commerce of the British Empire with that country is not in as healthy a condition as could be desired. It has expanded but little during the last fifteen years; it has been practically stagnant during the last five years, and the latest available statistics show a slight actual decrease. This slight decrease becomes a very great relative set-back when it is compared with the enormous advance made by Russian trade with Persia of late years, and especially during the years 1900 to 1904. The Russo-Japanese War checked trade between Russia and Persia very greatly in 1904-1905, but Russia is not relaxing the efforts that have won her her commercial position in Persia, and with the cessation of the war trade will recover. Unless, too, special efforts are made, the trade of the British Empire with Persia, in which India has so large an interest, will continue to make no progress.

According to the statistics issued by the Belgian Administration of Persian Customs, for the year March 21st, 1903, to March 20th, 1904, the value of the entire foreign trade of Persia was in that year (60 krans being taken to the £ sterling) £10,661,695 made up by imports £6,415,609, and exports £4,246,086.

Of this the lion's share is Russian, amounting to a total value of £5,668,340, of which £3,077,636 represent imports, and £2,590,704 represent exports.

The British Empire's share is £2,490,009, of which £2,138,112 represent imports, and £351,897 exports.

As Russia exports nearly as much as she imports, and as with increasing trade in exports the trade in imports tends to increase, these figures, which show that the British Empire takes little from Persia in comparison to the amount of merchandize she sends into that country, show also how necessary it is for England and India to try and increase the trade in Persian produce.

In the statistics published by the Customs Administration the trade with India and that with the United Kingdom are not entered separately, all trade between Persia and the British Empire being collected under one head.

The greater part of British, as well as of Indian, trade with Persia is done by way of the Persian Gulf Ports, and of the trade with the Ports of the Persian Gulf, nearly 70 per cent. on an average, represents trade with the British Empire. The movement of trade in the Gulf therefore offers a very reliable rough index of the movement of British trade with Persia.

Statistics compiled at the British Residency, Bushire, for the Ports of Bushire, Bahrein, Lingah, Bander Abbas, and the Arab Coast, but excluding Mohammerah, with which port there is a heavy trade, show the value of trade to have been in the years:—

	Imports. £	Exports. £
1902	3,574,381	2,643,681
1903	3,415,177	2,738,930
1904	2,787,970	2,116,276

The Indian share of the imports amounted in 1904 £1,294,813, and of the exports £1,259,555.

N.B.—(It must be borne in mind when reading Consular and Customs House Statistics, that the Consular authorities have always shown a tendency to exaggerate values somewhat, whilst the Customs House authorities have, on the other hand, a tendency to minimise values. Fluctuations in exchange are also responsible for differences in the comparison of values.)

Although the trade of the British Empire with Persia has, relatively to Russian trade, retrograded, and although Russia undoubtedly threatens to gain in the future victories in the trade of Persia as great as those which she has gained in the past, the position of the trade of the British Empire is not so bad as it seems to be at first sight.

For the enormous advance made by Russian trade in the last decade, and for the comparative stagnation of British and British-Indian trade, there are many reasons. Some of these I will state briefly.

Trade between Russia and Persia is greatly facilitated :—firstly, by comparatively easy means of communication; secondly, by the fact that the boundaries of the two countries march along the whole extent of the northern frontier of Persia; thirdly, because the population of Northern Persia and the contiguous provinces of Russia are nearly identical, in so far as their habits and wants are concerned, consequently sparing importers and exporters the necessity of specialising for one side or the other of the border.

If to the above facts be added the fact that the richest and most prosperous parts of Persia are in the north, and that Russian trade is carefully nursed and bolstered up by artificial aids, it is not difficult to understand why Russian trade has advanced so much more rapidly than British and British-Indian trade.

As matters now stand, the trade of the British Empire with Persia is heavily handicapped. The major portion enters Persia through the Gulf Ports, and enormous difficulties have to be overcome in the landing of goods and in their transit inland. Southern Persia is poor, and, owing to the continually disturbed state that it has been in for centuries, undeveloped. Communications are bad, and goods are liable to robbery in transit. The trade of the Empire is not assisted by British Imperial or Provincial Governments (as is Russian trade by the Russian Government) either financially, or by bounties, rebates and other artificial means. Finally, British Consuls do not always take that interest in the development of commerce that Russian Consuls invariably do.

In addition to the advantages pointed out above, Russian trade has received a very great impetus from the extension of the Russian railway system, which now touches the Northern Frontier of Persia at many places, and which, in so far as time goes, has brought Russian manufacturing centres close to Northern Persia.

The diversion to Batoum of much of the transit trade that used to pass through Yezd and other places to the Transcaspian Provinces, Khorasan, etc., has also caused an apparent reduction in trade from England and India with Persia.

Generally speaking, the growth of trade all over Persia would have been considerably greater had the Government of the country been better and more in accord with twentieth century ideals.

Want of roads and security; costly transport; a faulty postal service, and an incomplete telegraph system; coupled with the fact that there is virtually no law (as we understand the term) in the land, custom and the Koran taking its place, and bribery and the strong hand ruling everything; these have all militated against the development of the resources and trade of Persia.

Some attempt is, however, being made to improve the state of affairs in the Empire of the Shah. This is slight, it is true, but still it is a move in the right direction which now that it has commenced, should be encouraged and fostered by all concerned.

With regard to British-Indian trade, it must be remembered that some of its falling off is more apparent than real, for a very large proportion of the Indian Tea Trade that used to find its way into Khorasan, and through Persia into Russain territory, now goes *viâ* Batoum. The effect of this diversion of an important branch of trade is two-fold. It decreases the volume of British-Indian trade with Persia, and increases that of Russia.

The introduction of the new Customs Tariff, and subsequently that of the Règlement, have both had a detrimental effect on the trade of the British Empire. It seems to me, however, that the check from this cause is a temporary one, and that, as the machinery of the Customs gets into working order, and its officials learn more common sense, difficulties will gradually disappear or be overcome, and, as a consequence, the bad effects of a somewhat carefully thought out discriminatory tariff on British trade will not be so serious as was anticipated. Tea offers an instance in point.

Aimed originally at Indian teas, and pressing on them, value for value, most heavily, the heavy new duties have made China white teas and Lamsars so expensive that none but the richest can drink them, thus encouraging the use of cheaper Indian teas.

DEVELOPMENT OF TRADE.—Before trade with Persia can be developed to its fullest possible extent by England or India much will have to be done, and I shall briefly enumerate a few important points in this connection—

(1) British and Indian traders and their respective Governments, while recognising that they have been over-reached in the drawing up and imposition of the Customs Tariff and the Règlement, must accept the situation to a certain extent. Having done this, however, it is for them to see to it that the terms of the one-sided contract are carried out, and not contravened, just as it suits the whim of a Customs Director or of a Department of the Central Government at Tehran. The abolition according to the Treaty, once and for all, of the many illegal taxes that are now, openly as well as secretly in force, ought to be insisted on, as well as the erection of proper warehouses, bonded and other.

An International Court of Appeal, where customs questions are concerned, ought to be appointed at the chief ports. It is impracticable and most unsatisfactory to have to refer every point in dispute and every action to Tehran. The Customs Tariff cannot be touched or altered for years to come, but it is possible to insist upon a revision of the Règlement, which, though it has been accepted by the Home Government, the Board of Trade, and the Government of India, must have been agreed to under a misapprehension, for it is unpractical and unjust in its terms, being utterly unsuited to the commercial, physical, and geographical conditions of the country.

(2) Improvements at the Ports of Bander Abbas, Bushire, and Mohammerah are a necessity, together with an improvement in the system of lighterage.

(3) Modifications are necessary in the present methods of Customs House working, and greater facilities are required by merchants.

(4) Communications require urgent attention. Doubtless the Indian Government will see its way to following the example set in this connection by Russia in the north. Good roads and rapid means of transit are a crying need from a commercial point of view and not a day should be lost in carrying out necessary improvements and introducing reforms.

(5) More determination and earnestness, more backbone, are required in British policy, not only at Tehran, but throughout Persia. This is, I confess, a difficult thing to achieve with the dual system of control that still exists, despite its condemnation by every thoughtful writer.

(6) Consuls must be made to realise that the trade and commerce of the British Empire with Persia are of as much or more importance, and require closer attention, than the paying of ceremonial visits, and the exchange of empty compliments, with officials. I fear that they do not all quite appreciate the fact that it is their duty to safeguard the interests of traders, and do their utmost to develop commerce between Persia and the British Empire.

No improvement can be hoped for amongst Consuls, however, unless, as I have said before, a stronger line of policy is adopted at Tehran and elsewhere. It ought to be made impossible for Consuls and Merchants to feel that their representations to the Ministry at Tehran are treated in a half-hearted manner, either being shelved, or treated in a perfunctory way. It is here that a Commercial Attaché of experience and position would prove most useful. He would be useful in many other

directions also. In this connection considerable reform is necessary. There is at present open dissatisfaction amongst British subjects regarding the existing consular arrangements and methods of dealing with cases.

(7) I would suggest that such commercial houses as desire to push trade with Persia should make a combine, so far as Southern Persia is concerned, and send out a common agent, whose head-quarters in winter and spring might be at Bander Abbas, and in the summer and autumn at Kerman, depôts being opened under native management at Yezd, Bahramabad, Kerman, and Bam. This agent would have sub-agents under him, at the various places above mentioned, who would keep him advised as to trade requirements, which he could in turn verify from time to time by personal visits, *chappering* from place to place, *i.e.*, using post horses and post houses, instead of going by caravan, a slow and expensive method of travelling.

(8) The erection of suitable bonded warehouses, private or Government at Bander Abbas, Bushire, and Mohammerah would enable stocks to be kept at these ports at a small cost. These stocks would be worked up-country as required, thus avoiding any chance of overstocking the market, or allowing Russia to step in unchallenged to meet the demands of a depleted one. Further, an enormous saving in interest and in money locked up would result, meaning, in the case of certain grades of tea, as much as one hundred per cent. The erection of private Bonded Warehouses is provided for in the Règlement.

(9) At places where there are already well-established business houses, advantage might be taken of them to open up agencies. I feel sure that a ready response would result from any approach in this direction. Of course care would have to be taken not to enter into competition with the existing business carried on by any particular firm.

(10) Lastly, I would strongly recommend firms of standing and position in Persia becoming members of some one or other of the Indian Chambers of Commerce, bodies that have done so much for the interests of Trade in India.

APPENDICES.

APPENDIX A.

WEIGHTS AND MEASURES.

There is a bewildering variety of weights and measures in Persia, for these differ in every province, and very nearly in every town.

Since the introduction of the new Customs Tariff, however, the officially recognised weight has been the Batman, or Man Tabriz, which is taken by the Consular authorities as equivalent to 6·5 lbs. avoir. which is near enough for all practical purposes. In the the same way the kharvar is treated as 650 lbs.

The principal weights in use in Persia are, the miskal, seer, abbasi and man.

16 Miskals = 1 seer.
5 Seers = 1 gervanker, or abbasi.
8 Abbasis = 1 man Tabriz.

1 Man Tabriz (Sakat, or Batman)	= 640 miskals	= 6·547 lbs. avoir.	
1 Man Shiraz = 9 abbasi	= 720 „	= 7·366 „	„
1 Man Bushire = 9·5 abbasi	= 760 „	= 7·775 „	„
1 Man Kohneh	=1,000 „	= 10·229 „	„
1 Man Shah	=1,280 „	= 13·095 „	„
100 Man Tabriz=1 kharvar	=654·7 lbs.	or 5·846 cwt.	

There are other local weights :—

The Bander Abbas Man=about 9 lbs. (12 man=1 cwt.)

The Meshed man=665 miskals, or about 6·80 lbs.

The Maragha man=1,380 miskals, or about 14·12 lbs ; 2½ Maragha man=1 poud.

The Shushr man, generally=1,536 miskals, or about 15·45 lbs. (7¼ man to the cwt).

The Hashem man=12,160 miskals, 124 lbs. used in Bushire and the Karun.

The Ismailia man=120 okes, and for wheat in the Karun 135 okes or about 3½ cwt.

The Basrah man for dates=about 1¼ cwt.

The Ram Hormuz man, approximately 100 lbs.

Measure of length—

The units of measure is the zar, divided into $\frac{1}{16}$ ths. and $\frac{1}{32}$ nds.

The length of the zar, however, varies.

In Tehran 1 zar=40 inches in the Bazaars, but in the calculations of piece goods business is reckoned at 41 or 41¼ inches.

In Shiraz 1 zar=42 inches, and sometimes 41.

In Yezd 1 zar=40 inches.

In Tabriz 1 zar=44·2 inches. It is used in piece goods business as equal to 113 centimetres, or 44½ inches, or as 19 Tabrizi zars equal to 30 Russian Arshines (Maclean).

In Meshed 1 zar=41 inches.

Russian weight and measure—

40 funt=1 poud.

1 poud = 5·5 man Tabriz, or 36·1127 lbs. avoir.

1 Arshine, Russian,=28 inches.

20 Shahi=1 Kran.

10 Krans=1 Toman.

The coinage is :—

Nickel	1 shahi piece. 2 shahi pieces.
Silver	5 „ „ 10 „ „ 1 Kran piece 2 „ „ 5 „ „
Paper	Issued in circles for 1, 2, 3, 5, 10, 20, 50, 100 and 1,000 Tomans.
I. B. P. Notes	Notes encashable only in their own circles.

APPEN

(COMPILED FROM THE *DETAILED* PORTION OF THE OFFICIAL

***Exports** from Persia during the year*

To	Germany.	Austria.	British Empire.	Belgium.	France.
Matches	...	...	...	...	...
Animals, living	...	...	697,630	...	...
Arms	...	...	...	...	...
Wood-building	...	...	100	...	...
„ work	...	...	600	...	...
„ other	...	...	...	...	...
Wine, sparkling	...	...	...	...	...
„ still	...	...	4,156	...	...
Alcohol, crude	...	...	174	...	...
Cognac, rum, whiskey, etc.	...	...	...	...	...
Beers and vinegars	...	...	4,413	...	...
Lemonades	...	...	1,086	...	...
Mineral waters	...	...	...	...	...
Candles	...	...	...	...	...
Coal and charcoal	...	...	2,88,633	...	...
Wax, crude	310	...	7,600	...	...
Butter, fresh	...	...	82,659	...	...
„ preserved	...	...	...	...	...
Cocoa	...	...	...	...	...
Coffee	...	...	...	...	...
Rice	...	...	2,548	...	...
Other grains	...	...	1,740,463	...	...
Starch	...	...	1,930	...	...
Flour, edible	...	...	2,674	...	...
Cheese, common	...	...	160	...	...
„ others	...	...	...	...	...
Fruit, fresh or dried	220	...	3,491,398	306	3,500
„ preserved	...	...	...	...	...
Oil, vegetable—Olive	...	...	...	...	...
„ „ others	...	...	3,600	...	...
Milk, preserved	...	...	...	...	...
Legumes, fresh or dried	...	...	41,439	...	...
„ preserved	...	...	555	...	...
Honey	...	...	2,563	...	...
Eggs	...	...	2,090	...	...
Fish, fresh or salt	...	...	153,076	...	...
„ tinned	...	...	...	...	...
Salt	...	...	86	...	...
Sugar, loaf	...	...	30,330	...	...
„ soft	...	...	15,795	...	...
Sweets and candies	...	...	2,560	...	...
Tea, white	...	...	...	...	...
„ others	...	...	740	...	...
Meat, dried or smoked	...	...	...	...	...
„ preserved	...	...	...	...	...
Drugs	3,000	...	1,500,679	...	17,146
Spices, pepper, etc.	...	...	...	...	...
Empty wrappings-mat bags	...	...	487,669	...	...
Vanilla and saffron	...	...	...	...	...
Spices not specially named	...	...	8,501	...	...
Gums, caoutchouc in sheets	...	...	...	...	...
„ native	25,502	...	2,746,018	140,727	7,440
Goloshes and rubber shoes	...	...	...	...	...
Waterproof and wax cloth	...	...	...	...	...
Rubber goods	...	...	...	...	...
Wearing apparel and under clothing	...	...	...	...	...
„ „ all other	...	...	40,988	...	...
Umbrellas and sun shades	...	...	...	...	...
Oils, non-vegetable, naphtha in bulk	...	...	...	...	...
„ „ „ naphtha in drums and tins	...	...	...	...	...
„ „ „ not specially named	...	...	651	...	...
Pianos and harmoniums	...	...	...	...	...
Other musical instruments	...	...	...	...	...
Scientific instruments	...	...	...	...	...
Animal products, raw, unspecified	130,648	...	478,899	...	3,590
Iron, steel, cast and scrap iron	...	...	...	...	...
Iron and steel in bars, plates, etc.	...	...	1,200	...	...
Tinplate in sheets	...	...	...	...	...
Manufactures of iron, steel, cast, etc.	450	...	2,800	...	...
„ „ enamelled	...	...	...	...	...
Tin, lead, zinc, in ingots	...	...	200	...	...
Manufactures of tin, lead, zinc, etc.	...	...	...	...	...
Copper and nickel in bars, etc.	...	...	1,360	...	...
Nickel coin	...	...	...	...	...
Manufactures of nickel	...	...	...	...	...
„ „ copper	...	...	15,373	...	...
Enamelled manufactures	...	...	...	...	...
Carried over	160,130	...	11,863,396	141,033	31,676

DIX B 1.

PERSIAN RETURNS—STATISTIQUE COMMERCIALE).

ending March 20th, 1904, in krans.

Italy.	Afghanistan.	United States of America.	Holland.	Russia.	Turkey.	Other Countries.	Totals.
...	...	...	...	280	1,960	...	2,240
...	160,605	...	...	2,329,489	82,492	...	3,270,216
...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
...	...	...	...	102,930	12,286	...	115,316
...	1,722	...	...	31,263	25,655	...	59,240
...	...	...	...	5,070	75,183	...	80,253
...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
...	...	...	...	4,543	110	536	9,346
...	...	...	...	1,978	...	...	2,152
...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
...	...	...	...	...	2,306	...	6,719
...	80	...	...	165	320	...	1,651
...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
...	3,424	...	...	22,610	840	...	26,874
...	...	...	...	242,167	803	...	531,603
...	856	...	...	96,446	1,240	...	106,452
...	200	...	...	93,336	44,245	...	220,440
...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
...	1,824	...	900	21,641,216	39,400	..	21,685,888
...	359	...	2,100	541,516	1,521,685	...	3,806,123
...	...	...	...	200	27,194	...	29,324
...	...	...	...	8,942	1,618	...	13,234
...	...	...	...	7,835	22	...	8,017
...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
...	29,565	...	...	39,076,263	834,706	...	43,435,958
...	...	...	...	230	...	...	230
...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
...	4,422	...	...	411	13,452	...	21,885
...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
...	...	...	7,000	235,273	125,874	...	409,586
...	...	...	...	...	440	...	995
...	...	...	...	62,782	2,615	...	67,960
...	...	...	...	344,786	...	...	346,876
...	...	...	...	40,040,299	5,412	...	40,198,787
...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
...	...	...	...	502	4,262	...	4,850
...	396,630	...	...	79,259	39,524	...	545,743
...	186,337	...	...	5,606	32,359	...	240,097
...	4,569	...	...	11,537	200	...	18,866
...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
...	117,675	...	...	889,076	2,849	...	1,010,340
...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
...	13,098	...	...	301,013	267,017	40	2,101,993
...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
...	...	...	...	611,960	...	...	1,099,569
...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
...	33,749	...	...	40,145	52,194	...	134,589
...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
...	...	...	6,428	1,144,928	2,507,837	2,300	6,581,180
...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
...	18,052	...	...	474,927	135,317	...	669,284
...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
...	66,090	...	...	150	31,231	...	97,471
...	61	...	...	420	5,466	...	6,598
...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
...	...	...	...	213,483	97,380	...	924,000
...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
...	16,369	...	...	6,746	1,791	...	26,106
...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
...	10,277	...	...	8,330	44,202	...	66,059
...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
...	8,178	...	...	...	1,460	...	9,838
...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
...	...	...	...	800	2,520	...	4,680
...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
...	38,023	136	...	11,082	33,289	...	97,903
...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
...	1,112,165	136	16,428	108,689,934	6,078,756	2,876	128,096,530

Exports from Persia during the year

To	Germany.	Austria.	British Empire.	Belgium.	France.
Brought foward	160,130	...	11,863,396	141,033	31,676
Gold, silver and platinum, in ingots	...	...	...	...	...
Manufactures, silver	...	...	97,436	...	...
Gold and silver coin	...	...	889,219	...	...
Manufactures, gold and platinum	...	...	...	...	...
Minerals, not specially mentioned	...	...	...	...	...
Aluminium and metals, not specially named	...	...	...	...	...
Manufactures of metals, not specially named	...	...	...	...	...
Stones, rough	...	...	...	...	...
„ worked	...	...	...	...	...
Precious stones	...	...	3,056,460	...	14,000
Mineral products not specially named	...	...	5,256	...	...
Cotton, raw	...	...	83,434	...	...
„ yarn	...	...	...	...	...
„ tissues	...	...	84,026	...	...
„ velvets and plushes	...	...	...	...	...
„ tissues mixed with wool	...	...	...	...	...
„ tulles	...	...	...	...	...
Wool, raw	...	...	785,204	...	...
Felt, ordinary	...	...	...	...	...
Yarns of wool and hair	...	...	50	...	...
Woollen carpets and table covers	17,950	...	851,047	...	7,000
„ shawls	...	...	...	...	...
Tissues of wool, pure	...	...	...	...	...
„ „ mixed cotton	...	...	...	...	...
Flax and hemp, raw	...	...	...	...	...
Jute, raw	...	...	...	...	...
Yarns of linen and hemp	...	...	315	...	...
„ jute and other fibres	...	...	...	...	...
Tissues of linen and hemp	...	...	860	...	...
„ jute	...	...	...	...	...
Jute, velvets and plushes	...	...	...	...	...
Silk, in cocoons	...	...	...	...	18,610,774
„ raw	...	...	...	...	362,840
Floss silk yarns	...	...	...	...	...
Yarns of silk, twisted	...	...	...	...	...
Floss silk tissue	...	...	...	...	...
Tissues of silk, figured, and velvets	...	...	...	...	...
„ pure silk, all others	...	...	13,827	...	...
„ silk and cotton	...	...	...	...	...
„ „ and cotton figured	...	...	...	...	...
Gold and silver thread, false	...	...	...	...	...
Silver thread, drawn, gilt, etc.	...	...	7,000	...	...
Laces and embroidery	...	...	1,950	...	...
Tissues, not specified	...	...	158,199	...	...
Rope, cordage and twine	...	...	10	800	...
Mercery and hardware	...	...	...	...	...
„ articles, not specially named	...	...	82,284	...	...
Furniture, upholstered	...	...	...	...	...
„ other	...	...	...	...	...
Looking-glass, mirrors, framed, etc.	...	...	...	...	...
Furnishings, unspecified	...	...	3,214	...	...
Watches, gold	...	...	...	...	...
„ silver	...	...	...	...	...
„ other	...	...	...	...	...
Ships and boats	...	...	...	...	...
Objects of art and collection	600	...	14,509	...	...
Opium	...	...	1,881,890	3,99,040	...
Paper, ordinary	...	...	...	...	...
„ fancy	...	...	...	...	...
Wall paper	...	...	...	...	...
Other paper and cardboard	...	...	...	...	...
Manufactures of paper	...	...	...	...	...
Perfumery	...	...	44,455	...	...
Lambskins (Bagdad)	...	...	...	...	...
Other skins, raw	...	...	465,629	...	22,400
Skins, dressed	...	...	17,495	...	...
Leather manufactures	...	...	720	...	...
Tiles and bricks	...	...	...	...	...
Objects in terracotta and clay	...	...	5,121	...	...
„ china and porcelain	...	...	...	...	...
Chemical products, salts of soda	...	...	20	...	...
Other chemical products	...	...	...	...	...
Printed matter, journals and reviews	...	...	...	...	...
„ other	...	...	10,962	...	...
Gunpowder and cartridges	...	...	...	...	...
Forage	...	...	270	...	...
Resins and bitumen	...	...	630	...	...
Soap, perfumed	...	...	...	...	...
„ other	...	...	...	...	...
Tobacco, raw	...	...	36,797	...	16,400
Cigars, ordinary	...	...	...	...	...
„ others	...	...	...	...	...
Carried over	178,680	...	20,461,685	540,873	19,065,090

ending March 20th, 1904—contd.

Italy.	Afghanistan.	United States of America.	Holland.	Russia.	Turkey.	Other Countries.	Totals.
...	1,112,165	136	16,428	103,689,934	6,078,756	2,876	128,096,530
...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
...	1,160	...	...	1,500	2,270	...	102,366
...	...	...	...	740,045	614,690	...	2,243,954
...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
...	34	...	...	60	3,160	...	3,254
...	2,004	...	...	275,346	...	...	3,347,810
...	...	...	...	7,783	10,388	...	23,427
...	...	...	...	19,214,179	141,580	...	19,439,193
...	10,776	...	...	26,718	1,970	...	39,464
...	2,010,907	...	...	837,535	796,733	...	3,729,201
...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
...	33,753	...	...	2,780,712	5,905,727	...	9,505,396
...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
...	...	...	...	4,792	280	...	5,122
...	13,885	620,770	...	6,126,052	13,620,314	1,155,835	22,412,853
...	...	...	...	637,964	5,000	...	642,964
...	192,804	...	...	371,661	1,364,690	...	1,929,155
...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
...	...	...	...	1,900	30,314	...	32,529
...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
...	...	...	...	...	29,013	...	29,873
...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
5,237,071	2,944	...	...	707,565	68,579	...	24,626,933
...	53,178	...	...	244,851	1,771,589	...	2,432,458
...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
...	383	...	...	480	...	...	863
...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
...	253,228	...	...	3,302,232	807,196	...	4,576,483
...	...	...	...	97,566	...	...	97,566
...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
...	180	...	...	...	2,000	...	9,180
...	800	...	...	1,150	...	...	3,900
...	...	...	...	173,189	32,054	...	363,442
...	...	...	...	2,224	6,650	...	9,684
...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
...	68,067	...	...	192,720	214,236	...	557,307
...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
...	10	...	...	6,300	4,202	...	13,726
...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
...	...	...	...	83,267	18,820	3,265	120,461
...	30	...	...	712,081	2,830,516	10,696,810	16,520,367
...	495	...	...	82	...	...	577
...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
...	...	...	...	...	10,899	...	55,354
...	...	...	...	2,902,330	...	...	2,902,330
...	4,530	...	...	2,797,105	399,111	...	3,688,775
...	13,112	...	...	2,855,773	230,987	...	3,[illegible]
...	411	...	...	1,133	1,633	...	3,897
...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
...	1,453	...	...	9,645	7,586	10,000	33,805
...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
...	430	...	...	13,684	1,910	...	16,044
...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
...	688	...	...	29,578	7,590	...	48,818
...	...	...	...	...	1,540	...	1,540
...	...	...	...	24,681	180	...	25,131
...	...	...	...	481,472	40	...	482,142
...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
...	...	...	...	3,720	...	...	3,720
30,400	...	...	...	98,962	179,451	1,015,425	1,317,435
...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
5,267,471	3,777,427	620,906	16,428	154,397,971	35,201,654	12,884,211	252,412,396

Exports from Persia during the year

To	Germany.	Austria.	British Empire.	Belgium.	France.
Brought forward	178,680	...	20,461,685	540,873	19,065,090
Cigarettes and manufactured tobacco	...	...	...	...	...
Dyes and Japan indigo and kermés	...	...	8,261	...	...
Spirit, varnish	...	...	...	...	...
Other „	...	...	...	...	...
Dyes and colours, not named	...	...	29,094	...	5,340
Vegetable products and substances	...	...	614,659	...	...
Glassware, fancy	...	...	...	...	...
„ other	...	...	...	—	...
Window glass	...	...	130	...	...
Mirrors, unframed	...	...	...	...	...
Wagons and springless vehicles	...	...	...	...	...
Carriages	...	...	...	...	...
Total Krans	178,680	...	21,113,829	540,873	19,070,430
Sterling value Exports at 60 Krans to the £	£2,978	...	£351,897	£9,015	£317,840

ending March 30th, 1904—contd.

Italy.	Afghanistan.	United States of America.	Holland.	Russia.	Turkey.	Other Countries.	Totals.
5,267,471	3,777,427	620,906	16,428	154,397,971	35,201,654	12,884,211	252,412,396
...	...	...	...	1,654	400	...	2,054
...	...	...	...	810	67,254	...	76,325
...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
...	...	...	...	995	...	...	995
...	3,937	...	...	857,612	209,747	...	1,105,730
...	4,400	...	...	174,568	334,796	...	1,128,423
...	10,830	...	...	7,420	4,280	...	22,530
...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
...	4,588	...	...	1,216	6,160	...	12,094
...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
...	4,600	...	...	...	...	...	4,600
5,267,471	3,805,782	620,906	16,428	155,442,246	35,824,291	12,884,211	254,765,147
£87,791	£63,430	£10,348	£274	£2,590,704	£597,072	£214,737	£4,246,086

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Imports into Persia, during the year

From	Germany.	Austria.	British Empire.	Belgium.	France.
Matches	7,500	898,279	61,197	...	...
Animals, living	...	...	23,264	...	...
Arms	9,360	2,700	37,303	...	...
Wood, building	...	...	249,791	...	...
„ worked	22	...	4,945	...	550
„ other	...	...	3,908	...	...
Wines, sparkling	...	...	2,763	...	8,790
„ still	6,355	...	17,229	...	41,380
Alcohol, crude	...	...	5,810	...	10,580
Brandy, rum, whisky etc.	1,740	...	34,870	35	31,547
Beer and vinegar	7,946	...	4,449	...	330
Lemonades	...	...	698	...	...
Mineral waters	117	...	4,347	...	994
Candles	1,200	16,500	94,248	579,182	25,485
Coal and charcoal	...	...	393,136	...	...
Wax, crude	...	...	...	...	...
Provisions, butter, fresh	...	...	137,250	...	...
„ „ preserved	...	...	27,550	...	...
Cocoa	1,575	...	1,021	...	1,670
Coffee, raw	...	...	94,264	...	...
Rice	...	...	1,927,768	...	...
All other grains	...	...	912,739	...	...
Malt	80	...	1,333	...	...
Edible flours	...	...	967,086	...	...
Macaroni and Vermicelli	40	...	5,616	...	4,975
Biscuits and pastry	88	...	6,528	...	...
Chicory	...	...	...	...	...
Cheese, common	...	...	124	...	...
„ other	...	...	133	...	315
Fruit, fresh or dry	...	...	168,495	...	...
„ preserved	328	...	51,832	...	4,417
Vegetable oil, Olive	608	...	2,823	...	90
„ „ all others	...	...	51,832	...	2,952
Milk, preserved	...	...	566	...	...
Vegetables, fresh or dry	...	...	66,571	...	...
„ preserved	...	...	13,545	...	6,400
Honey	...	...	60	...	...
Eggs	...	...	...	...	...
Fish, fresh or salt	...	...	4,852	...	...
„ tinned	...	...	4,401	...	7,325
Salt	...	...	31,087	...	...
Sugar, loaf	438,895	231,031	304,176	168,679	10,503,169
„ soft	421,581	2,282,972	455,119	400	98,716
Sweets and candies	1,264	...	11,611	...	2,638
Tea, white	...	...	333,716	...	...
„ other sorts	...	...	12,509,748	...	...
Meats, dried or smoked	...	...	500	...	...
„ tinned	137	...	12,261	...	4,820
Drugs	409,505	51,552	638,712	17	52,403
Spices, pepper, mace, etc.	...	...	3,432,610	...	70
Vanilla and saffron	23	...	584	...	...
Spices, others not specially named	...	...	469,821	...	296
Gums, caoutchouc in sheets, etc.	...	...	1,446	...	...
Goloshes and rubber shoes, all kinds	856	2,010	11,919	...	3,000
Waterproof and wax cloth, all kinds	3,843	2,000	3,980	...	890
Rubber goods	72	...	386	...	330
Clothing and underwear	14,992	1,885	86,510	...	15,197
Other articles of clothing	53,515	187,416	152,735	...	144,458
Umbrellas and sunshades	3,317	51,979	2,225	...	4,200
Oils, non-vegetable, naphtha, in bulk	...	...	...	...	...
„ „ in tins and drums	...	...	30,002	...	...
„ „ „ all other sorts	...	...	28,413	...	...
Pianos and harmoniums	1,710	...	4,000	...	7,800
Instruments of music, other	3,995	...	8,207	...	13,321
Scientific instruments	1,784	...	4,614	...	...
Animal products, crude, not specially named	...	...	82,613	...	...
Iron, steel, and scrap iron	665	...	49,079	...	...
Iron and steel in bars, plate, etc.	3,065	11,000	711,897	152,146	...
Tin plate in sheets	1,880	1,641	359,234	...	119,406
Manufactures in cast iron	18,532	18,318	697,977	1,735	19,105
„ „ enamelled	74,028	24,993	66,274	...	29,447
Tin, lead, zinc in ingots	...	...	1,286,489	2,650	355,864
Manufactures of tin, lead, zinc, etc.	4,646	1,635	11,201	...	3,480
Copper and nickel in bars, etc.	18,487	...	4,191,853	...	350,232
Nickel coins	...	...	...	159,500	...
Manufactures of nickel	1,217	468	8,716	...	...
Manufactures of copper	12,704	8,166	28,240	...	10
Carried over	1,527,672	3,794,545	31,422,302	1,064,344	11,876,652

DIX B.—1.

ending 20th March 1904.

Italy.	Afghanistan.	United States of America.	Holland.	Russia.	Turkey.	Other Countries.	TOTALS.
236,594	...	...	...	670,732	2,414	393,276	2,269,992
...	139,305	...	...	2,245,463	48,041	...	2,456,073
...	...	...	...	19,650	50	...	69,063
...	...	...	...	1,391,942	28,303	8,729	1,678,765
...	10	...	...	45,296	3,496	...	54,319
...	...	...	...	...	8,210	...	12,118
...	...	...	...	2,788	...	...	14,341
...	...	...	...	38,632	560	...	104,156
...	3,075	...	...	75,419	11,160	...	106,044
...	...	...	...	11,039	2,614	250	82,095
...	...	...	...	181,395	45	...	194,165
...	...	...	...	78,666	2,229	...	81,593
...	...	...	...	30,371	203	...	36,032
400	...	...	214,774	590,277	90,144	...	1,612,210
...	...	...	...	8,290	83,069	...	484,495
...	...	...	...	28,626	380	...	29,006
...	54,507	...	...	133,831	16,817	...	342,405
...	...	275	...	7,363	1,621	...	36,809
...	...	210	35	7,368	...	...	11,879
...	...	...	6,408	7,017	29,020	...	136,709
...	41,399	...	...	1,332,369	103,401	...	3,414,937
...	17,127	...	...	894,098	46,722	...	1,870,686
...	...	...	...	1,890	...	...	3,303
...	...	450	...	3,703,864	...	...	4,671,400
...	...	...	...	15,297	120	...	26,048
...	...	150	...	43,370	...	...	50,136
...	...	...	...	10	...	...	10
...	362	...	...	15	...	...	501
...	...	...	...	18,398	330	600	19,776
...	33,454	...	...	79,456	1,583,461	...	1,864,866
...	...	...	...	9,090	31,564	138,460	235,691
500	...	...	...	6,125	870	...	11,016
...	...	...	...	6,270	405	...	61,459
...	...	...	...	85	340	...	991
...	24	...	...	198,818	9,646	...	275,059
...	...	...	...	9,413	110	...	29,468
...	...	...	...	...	...	...	60
...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
...	...	...	...	711	24,299	...	29,562
...	...	200	...	34,597	400	...	46,923
...	...	...	...	195,632	9	...	226,728
...	...	...	...	57,498,169	26,505	87,290	69,217,913
...	...	...	...	9,563,338	5,329	1,450	12,828,905
...	...	...	...	54,455	2,544	2,712	75,224
...	...	...	...	768	...	1,041,360	1,375,814
...	...	...	...	1,536,094	6,172	1,445,362	15,497,376
...	...	...	...	265	1,015	...	1,780
...	...	...	...	10,360	168	...	27,746
19,330	95,354	34,735	...	321,538	77,211	15,764	1,716,121
...	146	...	...	12,496	1,205	250,018	3,696,545
...	...	...	...	74,444	...	200	75,251
...	12,294	...	...	8,038	734	2,418	498,601
...	...	...	...	70	100	...	1,616
...	...	6,028	...	597,374	446	...	621,633
...	...	515	...	28,830	269	...	40,327
...	200	...	...	31,257	23	...	32,268
...	2,952	...	1,890	60,619	301,112	...	485,157
...	11,490	670	...	196,464	66,354	954	814,056
...	...	...	94	118,991	314	702	181,822
...	...	...	...	1,233,421	...	...	1,233,421
...	...	3,900	...	2,868,608	26,559	...	2,925,069
...	...	...	...	51,628	35,955	...	115,996
...	...	1,200	...	16,770	...	...	31,480
...	...	1,700	...	29,791	10	40	57,064
...	...	550	...	13,641	...	...	20,589
...	...	...	...	250,472	1,864,054	...	2,197,139
...	...	367	...	627,856	282	...	678,249
...	...	...	...	3,134,927	18,284	1,980	4,033,299
...	...	...	...	216,948	40	...	699,149
...	3,191	3,040	...	2,100,611	13,861	120	2,876,490
...	...	10,550	...	236,786	4,554	83	446,715
...	...	...	...	152,848	...	126,646	1,924,497
...	...	...	...	34,522	...	...	55,484
...	...	...	...	20,399	44,191	...	4,625,162
...	...	...	...	...	...	...	159,500
...	...	100	...	82,150	...	...	92,651
...	...	...	...	1,224,965	4,692	...	1,278,777
256,824	414,890	64,640	223,201	94,533,586	4,632,036	3,518,414	153,329,106

Imports into Persia, during the year

From	Germany.	Austria.	British Empire.	Belgium.	France.
Brought forward	1,527,672	3,794,545	31,422,302	1,064,344	11,876,652
Enamelled ware	...	...	4,550	...	...
Gold, silver, and platinum in ingots	825	...	8,517,066	...	7,650
Manufactures of silver	...	73,205	249,568	...	1,103
Gold and silver coin	...	71,292	2,604,743	...	100
Manufactures of gold and platinum	10,751	1,420	9,917	...	3,090
Minerals not specially named	...	...	8,710	...	...
Aluminium and metals not specially named	12,356	...	24,844	...	...
Manufactures in metals not specially named	1,670	...	3,483	...	215
Stones, rough	...	...	920	...	...
Stones, cut and polished	...	...	3,501	...	115
Precious stones	...	120	12,385	...	16,220
Mineral products, unspecified	...	...	11,099	...	...
Cotton, raw	...	...	16,900	...	...
Cotton yarn and thread	212,110	12,427	6,375,415	...	54,349
Cotton tissues	498,080	409,648	67,370,621	53,800	2,092,285
Cotton velvets and plushes	103,400	23,000	80,367	...	110,668
Cotton tissues mixed with wool	668	...	24,038	...	40,400
Cotton tulle (net), embroidered or plain	25,858	63,921	401,002	...	361,199
Wool, raw	...	...	6,820	...	...
Felt, ordinary	300	...	...	...	...
Yarns and twist of wool or hair	203	500	35,466	...	930
Carpets of wool and table covers	22	...	810	...	...
Woollen shawls	1,000	...	812,449	...	...
Tissues, all wool	810,644	4,280,228	1,469,095	22,240	2,131,437
Tissues of wool mixed with cotton	144,575	736,665	2,249,647	85,800	479,189
Flax and hemp, raw	...	...	53,477	...	...
Jute, raw	...	...	...	...	...
Yarns of flax and hemp	156	...	46,958	...	...
Yarns of jute and other fibres	...	990	600,052	...	4,971
Tissues of flax and hemp	...	1,700	15,266	...	130,853
Tissues of jute	240	3,240	20,455	...	300
Velvets and plushes of jute	28,392	...	28,257	...	6,650
Silk, in cocoons	...	...	...	...	...
Silk (raw)	...	...	3,348	...	120
Silk, floss and wadding	...	...	18,411	...	...
Silk yarn, twisted	25	...	3,594	...	...
Tissues of silk, waste	...	2,700	13,915	...	2,600
Tissues of silk, figured, and velvets	7,458	...	45,755	...	96,281
All other tissues of pure silk	21,101	33,000	108,889	...	1,362,356
Tissues of silk, mixed cotton	1,045,730	286,050	839,304	...	1,898,853
Tissues of silk and cotton, figured	...	...	...	...	58,300
Gold and silver thread, imitation	345,136	3,365	41,069	...	70,735
Silver thread, finedrawn, gilt, etc.	1,690	60	19,764	...	440
Laces and embroidery	38,276	8,060	14,299	...	35,730
Tissues not specially named	7,472	24,160	39,038	...	13,843
Rope, cordage, and twine	190	...	35,958	...	...
Mercery and hardware	59,795	6,751	107,066	...	2,237
„ articles not specially named	512,915	1,372,205	316,449	10,565	442,052
Furniture, upholstered	...	...	8,750	...	4,305
„ all other sorts	14,416	23,320	6,610	25	22,359
Looking glasses, mirrors, framed, etc	88,626	26,700	4,726	...	20,278
Articles of furniture not specially named	31,530	386,393	100,826	14,995	376,102
Watches—gold	...	8,400	25,296	...	9,330
„ silver	423	...	16,335	...	20,870
„ others	3,170	...	6,898	...	4,015
Ships and boats	1,532	...	11,783	...	...
Objects of art and collection	...	...	...	...	...
Opium	...	...	3,852	...	...
Paper, printing or writing, ordy.	29,137	154,249	65,934	...	24,580
„ „ fancy	377	1,759	5,966	...	4,945
„ wall	880	205	908	...	2,455
Other papers, and card board	...	...	...	...	...
Manufactures of paper	3,248	3,724	20,414	...	1,007
Perfumery all kinds	2,244	2,887	6,955	...	12,385
Lambskins (Bagdad)	...	...	2,310	...	...
Other skins, raw	...	600	51,779	...	...
Skins, dressed	4,075	4,000	44,452	...	8,970
Leather manufactures	25,488	32,340	126,766	...	17,256
Pottery,—tiles and bricks	...	...	...	...	...
Terra cotton	2,225	...	2,046	...	...
Earthen ware and China	54,707	16,473	194,678	9,433	18,390
Chemical products, salts of soda	...	...	2,218	...	...
„ „ other kinds	16,937	1,500	266,439	390	3,100
Printed and lithod matter, journal and reviews	100	...	136,091	...	100
„ „ others	1,200	1,170	31,179	...	3,730
Gunpowder and cartridges	122,538	...	60,867	...	12,300
Forage and fodder	...	...	1,440	...	...
Resin and bitumen	...	...	...	...	...
Soap, scented	1,583	1,717	12,555	...	1,446
„ other	3,214	1,882	62,206	...	1,899
Tobacco, unmanufactured	...	...	679	...	...
Carried over	5,826,360	11,876,571	125,488,000	1,261,592	21,871,745

ending 20th March 1904—contd.

Italy.	Afghanistan.	United States of America.	Holland.	Russia.	Turkey.	Other Countries.	Total.
256,824	414,890	64,640	223,201	94,533,586	4,632,036	3,518,414	153,329,106
...	...	...	...	46,490	...	...	51,040
...	...	6,266,055	...	10,296,004	...	...	25,087,600
...	...	...	...	23,435	55,817	106,901	510,029
...	...	...	...	362,100	1,615,630	...	4,653,865
...	...	...	...	40,705	131	4,295	70,309
...	...	...	...	2,510	...	...	11,220
...	...	831	...	18,336	11,848	460	68,675
..	...	5,501	...	42,565	500	....	53,934
....	...	...	...	1,140	...	...	2,060
...	...	...	...	22,154	2,020	...	27,790
...	100	...	...	17,342	3,870	1,000	51,037
...	...	...	...	226,802	1,676	...	239,577
...	58,618	...	...	6,910	60	...	82,488
172,800	14,957	..	...	149,705	25,698	...	7,017,461
2,072,550	6,771	10,962	361,400	59,491,172	409,378	4,620	132,781,287
...	5,560	...	...	1,073,233	335	...	1,396,563
...	...	...	...	3,300	1,348	...	69,754
3,924	...	...	...	1,390	138	...	857,432
....	5,147,533	...	...	70,013	5,857	...	5,230,223
...	3,279	...	...	8,780	...	...	12,359
...	970	...	...	26,761	2,172	...	67,002
...	90,985	...	...	54,922	3,450	...	150,189
...	1,100	...	...	47,018	140	...	861,727
...	20,689	...	...	677,231	24,364	1,885	9,437,763
43,800	16,218	8,200	...	318,313	16,036	...	4,098,443
...	...	...	...	138,428	100	...	192,005
...	...	...	...	...	150	...	150
...	1,159	...	...	1,523,047	6,362	...	1,577,682
...	...	...	...	128,193	10,107	...	744,313
...	...	...	...	1,238,039	4,266	...	1,390,124
...	...	765	...	2,650	3,142	1,118	31,910
...	...	...	...	19,115	...	...	82,414
...	...	...	...	150	128	...	278
...	785	...	...	1,728	175	...	6,156
...	240	...	...	18,820	...	270	37,741
...	...	...	...	9,665	...	30	13,314
...	...	...	...	12,213	100	1,402	32,930
...	52	...	...	14,602	16,940	1,640	182,728
102,800	...	50	...	328,758	6,505	73,297	2,056,756
58,700	...	25	...	61,310	20,614	43,470	4,254,056
...	...	...	...	...	1,256	...	59,556
...	40	...	...	228,933	...	...	689,278
...	...	...	...	1,310	75,554	...	98,818
...	200	...	...	24,461	2,592	475	124,093
3,900	...	...	...	9,210	33,433	2,580	133,636
...	...	...	...	259,766	27	...	295,941
...	...	...	150	1,068,569	38,551	2,319	1,285,438
27,650	22,042	13,408	135	1,478,584	202,967	17,846	4,416,818
...	...	105	...	38,966	...	...	52,126
...	...	730	...	705,311	9,862	180	842,813
...	...	50	...	976,084	19,481	612	1,216,557
...	...	4,152	...	453,698	5,859	2,992	1,376,547
...	...	2,027	...	31,464	6,400	14,530	97,447
...	...	1,010	...	7,715	9,441	13,013	68,807
...	...	420	...	13,121	605	3,833	32,062
...	...	...	...	560	...	...	13,875
...	...	...	...	500	...	...	500
...	992	...	...	...	...	2,000	6,844
2,278	...	2,363	...	744,122	30	...	1,022,693
...	...	...	...	10,558	30	...	23,635
...	...	1,150	...	47,824	...	...	53,422
...	...	...	...	123,616	...	...	123,616
...	...	...	...	48,932	125	...	77,450
...	...	...	...	12,742	386	346	[illegible]
...	202,223	...	...	45,340	733,149	...	983,022
700	338,694	...	...	201,868	498,112	...	1,091,753
1,300	17,138	930	...	391,773	65,312	...	537,950
...	4,327	1,352	...	387,295	157,400	3,661	755,885
...	...	...	...	27,114	...	...	27,114
...	...	...	...	9,075	1,569	...	14,915
...	...	...	1,677	1,649,959	12,377	86,936	2,044,630
...	...	...	...	14,428	...	...	16,646
...	...	...	...	135,471	50	130	424,017
...	...	1,910	...	17,616	545	7,152	163,514
53	...	298	...	32,186	365	850	51,031
...	...	...	...	121,551	20	...	317,276
...	2,968	...	...	46,699	...	...	51,107
...	...	...	...	5,055	189	...	5,244
...	...	565	...	102,000	3,898	...	123,764
...	...	...	...	186,588	5,580	...	261,369
...	1,894	...	...	151,568	1,402,274	...	1,561,415
2,747,279	6,374,374	6,387,499	586,563	180,870,287	10,173,532	3,918,257	377,382,059

***Imports** into Persia during the year*

From	Germany.	Austria.	British Empire.	Belgium.	France.
Brought forward .	5,826,360	11,876,571	125,488,000	1,261,592	21,871,745
Cigars, ordinary	1,104	...	11,060	...	1,420
,, others	...	...	...	...	...
Other mfd. tobacco, and cigarettes . . .	527	...	...	500	1,390
Dyes, indigo and kermes	2,188	22,515	2,390,625	...	2,517
Spirit varnishes	...	...	365	...	...
Other varnishes	126	600	20,033	...	480
Dyes and colours not named	15,500	...	138,958	...	...
Vegetable products and substances . . .	...	...	47,407	...	...
Glasswâre, fancy	30,702	61,681	32,175	7,309	45,260
,, other	38,129	26,603	81,239	25,122	12 240
Window glass	4,321	24,790	23,298	106,398	...
Mirrors, unframed	17,486	49,800	10,560	2,000	20,204
Wagons, carts, etc.	92	...	2,778	...	...
Carriages, etc.	4,471	11,400	40,218	...	...
TOTAL . Krs.	5,941,006	12,073,960	128,286,716	1,402,921	21,955,256
Sterling val. (at 60 krans) . £	99,017	201,233	2,138,112	23,382	365,921

ending 20th March 1904—concld.

Italy.	Afghanistan.	United States of America.	Holland.	Russia.	Turkey.	Other Countries.	TOTAL.
2,747,279	6,374,374	6,387,499	586,563	180,870,287	10,173,532	3,918,257	377,382,059
...	...	...	2,872	2,290	...	1,500	20,246
...	...	400	...	...	...	...	400
...	42	13,657	...	208,760	49,416	750	275,042
...	39,600	3,520	...	90,197	2,710	...	2,553,872
...	...	...	...	6,264	...	...	6,629
...	...	...	...	12,074	105	...	33,418
...	...	...	...	280,543	279,605	150	714,756
...	15,117	...	...	193,146	4,470	...	260,140
...	...	...	...	212,367	371	...	389,865
...	...	150	...	1,300,578	1,903	72	1,486,036
...	...	...	...	269,903	3,720	...	432,430
...	...	...	...	215,126	175	...	315,351
...	...	...	...	172,500	920	...	176,290
...	...	9,502	...	824,094	300	...	889,985
2,747,279	6,429,133	6,414,728	589,435	184,658,129	10,517,227	3,920,729	384,936,519
45,788	107,152	106,912	9,824	3,077,636	175,287	65,345	6,415,609

APPEN

Comparative table of Persian ***Imports*** *and* ***Exports****, for the year ending 20th March 1904.*

No. of Class.	Description.	Imports.			Exports		
		From all Countries.	Per cent.	Totals.	To all Countries.	Per cent.	Totals.
		Krs.		Krs.	Krs.		Krs.
1	Matches	2,269,992	.589		2,240	.001	
2	Animals (living)	2,456,073	·638		3,270,216	1·13	
3	Arms	69,063	·0179		...	...	
4	Wood	1,745,202	·453		254,809	·1	
5	Beverages	618,426	·1606		19,867	·0077	
6	Candles, etc.	1,612,210	·4188		26,874	·0105	
7	Fuel	484,495	·1258		531,603	·208	
8	Wax	29,006	·0075		106,452	·041	
9	Food stuffs	112,431,511	29·208		112,065,199	43·98	
10	Drugs	1,716,121	·446		2,101,993	·82	
11	Packing	...	...		1,099,569	·47	
12	Spices	4,265,397	1·1		134,589	·05	
13	Gums, India rubber	695,844	·18		6,581,180	2·58	
14	Clothing, etc.	1,481,035	·38		669,284	·26	
15	Oils (mineral)	4,278,486	1·11		104,069	·04	126,967,944
16	Musical instruments	88,544	·023	134,241,405	...	...	
17	Scientific „	20,589	·0051		...	...	
18	Animal products (raw)	2,197,139	·55		924,000	·36	
19	Minerals	47,697,109	12·4		5,925,397	2·326	
20	Textiles	174,046,570	45·21		89,686,259	35·2	
21	Hardware	5,702,256	1·48		557,307	·21	
22	Furniture	3,488,043	·91		13,726	·0053	
23	Watches	198,316	·05		...	...	
24	Boats	13,875	·0034		...	...	
25	Art and Collection	500	·0001		120,461	·05	
26	Opium	6,844	·0017		16,520,367	6·48	
27	Paper and Stationery	1,300,816	·35		577	·00022	113,748,094
28	Perfume, etc.	37,945	·0095		55,354	·021	
29	Skins, leather, etc.	3,368,610	·95		9,712,369	3·81	
30	Pottery	2,086,659	·54		33,805	·0013	
31	Chemicals, etc.	440,663	·115		16,044	·0062	
32	Printing and Lithographing	214,545	·055	240,820,479	48,818	·018	
33	Ammunition	317,276	·082		1,540	·006	
34	Forage	51,107	·013		25,131	·01	
35	Resins	5,244	·00136		482,142	·2	
36	.....	...	...		...	...	
37	Soap	385,133	·1		3,720	·0015	
38	Tobacco	1,857,103	·48		1,319,489	·52	
39	Dyes, paints, etc.	3,308,675	·86		1,183,050	·46	
40	Vegetable products	260,140	·067		1,128,423	·44	
41	Glass	2,623,682	·68		34,624	·001	
42	Vehicles	1,066,275	·27	9,874,635	4,600	·0001	14,049,109
	Total		Krs.	384,936,519	...	Krs.	254,765,147

Whole trade Krs. 639,701,666.

DIX B 2

Details of Persian ***Imports*** *and* ***Exports*** *from 'Other Countries'* for the year ending 20th March 1904.*

No. of Class.	Description.	Imports.							Exports.		
		China.	Dutch E. Indies.	Japan.	Sweden.	Egypt.	Switzerland.	Greece.	China.	Dutch E. Indies.	Egypt.
1	Matches	...	...	153,991	239,285	...	...	...	...	...	...
2	Animals (living)	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
3	Arms	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
4	Wood	...	8,729	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
5	Beverages	...	...	...	...	...	...	250	...	536	...
6	Candles	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
7	Fuel	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
8	Wax	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
9	Food stuffs	1,407,214	1,222,130	...	...	87,290	600	...	...	...	...
10	Drugs	15,764	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	40
11	Packing	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
12	Spices	252,636	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
13	Gums, India rubber	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	2,300	...	...
14	Clothing, etc.	115	...	702	...	...	839	...	...	...	...
15	Oils (mineral)	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
16	Musical instruments	...	...	...	...	...	40	...	...	...	...
17	Scientific ,,	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
18	Animal products	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
19	Minerals	112,256	125,516	203	1,980	1,500	...	...	...	...	...
20	Textiles	84,730	...	26,122	...	50	19,885	...	6,975	...	1,148,860
21	Hardware	16,073	...	1,642	...	1,130	820	500	...	...	...
22	Furniture	...	...	3,304	...	...	480	...	...	...	...
23	Watches	10,505	...	...	...	...	20,871	...	...	...	...
24	Boats	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
25	Art and Collection	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	3,265
26	Opium	2,000	...	...	...	...	...	...	10,696,810	...	...
27	Paper and Stationery	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
28	Perfume, etc.	346	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
29	Skins, leather, etc.	2,361	...	...	...	1,300	...	...	...	...	...
30	Pottery	62,861	...	23,675	...	...	400	...	...	...	10,000
31	Chemicals, etc.	130	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
32	Printing and Lithographing.	850	...	...	...	7,152	...	...	...	...	...
33	Ammunition	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
34	Forage	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
35	Resins	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
36	.....	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
37	Soap	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
38	Tobacco	...	...	...	...	750	1,500	...	...	...	1,015,425
39	Dyes, paints, etc.	150	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
40	Vegetable products	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
41	Glass	...	...	72	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
42	Vehicles	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
	Total	1,967,991	1,356,405	209,711	241,265	97,872	46,735	750	10,706,085	536	2,177,590

(Imports)—Total Krs. 3,920,529 (Exports)—Total Krs. 12,884,211

* *Vide* column 12 in the detailed tables of Persian Imports and Exports.

APPEN

Statement showing the total value of **Imports** *from all countries into the Persian Gulf during the year ending December 1904.*

Country.	Bushire.	Bahrein.	Lingah.	Arabian Coast.	Bander Abbas.	Total.
	£	£	£	£	£	£
United Kingdom	389,323	183	...	...	99,134	488,640
India	204,009	592,299	193,473	154,452	150,580	1,294,813
France	69,812	...	968	...	21,613*	92,393
Germany	40,141	...	1,297	...	3,677	45,115
Austria	25,040	...	...	...	12,602	37,642
United States of America	41,699	...	...	...	124	41,823
Russia	33,663	3,433	...	...	8,816 *	45,912
Turkey and Turkish Arabia	19,590	292,849	1,565	17,192	520	331,716
China	20,299	...	...	...	4,874	25,173
Belgium	21,978	...	...	...	2,610	24,588
Japan	183	...	...	...	684	867
Italy	72	...	...	...	62	134
Holland	5,535	...	...	...	1	5,536
Java	7,870	...	...	...	4,526	12,396
Mauritius	...	...	...	...	528	528
Egypt	1,395	...	...	...	375	1,770
Sweden	2,038	...	...	...	139	2,177
Switzerland	109	...	...	...	7	116
Arabia	...	...	...	...	254 *	254
Maskat	475	8,870	22,201	21,201	961	53,708
Bahrein	2,116	...	4,874	5,176	13	12,179
Zanzibar	411	2,546	1,693	640	29	5,319
Hong Kong	...	...	...	...	2 *	2
Ceylon	1,854	...	...	...	100	1,954
Aden	...	...	...	...	25	25
Arab Coast	...	48,881	47,417	...	225	96,523
Persian Ports	...	40,764	34,202	81,711	5,327	162,004
Mokulla	...	2,450	...	...	...	2,450
Koweit	2,106	...	...	...	...	2,106
Other Countries	107	...	...	...	...	107
Total Imports 1904,	889,825	992,275	307,690	280,372	317,808	2,787,970
Ditto, 1903	950,364	1,027,564	684,521	303,583	449,145	3,415,177
Ditto, 1902	1,100,607	888,041	895,429	291,013	399,291	3,574,381

* Discrepancy due to clerical errors in official returns.

DIX B-3.

Statement showing the total value of ***Exports*** *to all countries from the Persian Gulf during the year ending December 1904*

Country.	Bushire.	Bahrein.	Lingah.	Arabian Coast.	Bander Abbas.	Total.
	£	£	£	£	£	£
United Kingdom	72,527	4,332	3,875	...	7,493	88,227
India	122,911	678,855	88,637	277,333	91,819	1,259,555
France	3,456	23	...	...	...	3,479
Germany	4,653	8,827	3,083	...	...	16,563
Russia	6,576	...	...	...	962	7,538
Turkey and Turkish Arabia	27,819	158,808	12,318	4,840	4,605	208,390
China	184,760	...	...	...	4,017	188,777
Belgium	141	...	...	...	...	141
Holland	7	...	...	...	...	7
Egypt	20,811	2,678	933	...	...	24,422
Switzerland	...	...	...	...	1,537	1,537
Arabia	24	...	...	...	5,521	5,545
Maskat	426	4,415	2,365	25,327	1,802*	34,335 *
Bahrein	8,429	...	3,346	4,720	925	17,420
Zanzibar	119	2,050	...	32	...	2,201
Aden	242	...	...	...	...	242
Arab Coast	...	23,394	109,679	...	1,451	134,524
Persian Ports	...	17,867	24,720	76,672	1,899	121,158
Koweit	1,563	...	...	...	135	1,698
Oman	237	...	...	...	...	237
Malta	173	...	...	...	...	173
Other Countries	107	...	...	...	...	107
Total Exports, 1904	454,981	901,249	248,956	388,924	122,166 *	2,116,276 *
Ditto, 1903	430,375	865,334	653,112	651,477	138,632	2,738,930
Ditto, 1902	348,201	736,920	881,577	579,652	97,331	2,643,681

* Discrepancy due to clerical error in official returns.

APPEN

BANDER

Comparative statement of total ***Imports*** *from all countries during the years 1902, 1903 and 1904.*

Country.	1902.	1903.	1904.	Increase in 1904 as compared with 1903.	Decrease in 1904 as compared with 1903.	Average percentage of total trade for 1902.	1903.	1904.
	₹	₹	₹	₹	₹			
United Kingdom	19,53,420	22,68,165	14,87,007	...	7,81,158	32·6	33·5	31·2
India	28,09,155	25,66,440	22,58,698	...	3,07,742	46·8	37·8	47·4
France	3,53,145	7,38,135	3,24,188	...	4,13,947	5·9	10·8	6·8
Germany	27,645	6,510	55,149	48,639	...	·46	·096	1·15
Austria	4,38,750	3,24,345	1,89,028	...	1,35,317	7·3	4·7	3·96
United States of America	...	420	1,862	1,442	...	...	·006	·039
Russia	5,850	50,250	1,32,247	81,997	...	·097	·74	2·77
Turkey and Turkish Arabia	23,280	8,430	7,799	...	631	·39	·12	·16
China	2,06,715	3,09,090	73,116	...	2,35,974	3·4	4·56	1·53
Belgium	29,595	1,12,320	39,158	...	73,162	·49	1·65	·82
Japan	13,575	21,525	10,257	...	11,268	·22	·31	·216
Italy	...	30	926	896	...	...	·0004	·019
Holland	...	...	20	20	...	...	...	·0004
Java	80,520	1,49,790	67,890	...	81,900	1·3	2·2	1·42
Mauritius	...	...	7,920	7,920	...	...	...	·16
Egypt	...	75	5,625	5,550	...	...	·001	·118
Sweden	5,445	21,960	2,079	...	19,881	·09	·32	·043
Switzerland	...	825	105	...	720	...	·012	·0022
Arabia	4,545	6,525	3,804	...	2,721	·075	·096	·0798
Maskat	14,760	17,805	14,422	...	3,383	·24	·26	·3
Bahrein	150	705	195	...	510	·0025	·0104	·004
Zanzibar	1,125	...	438	438	...	·019	...	·0091
Hong Kong	...	...	38	38	...	...	...	·0008
Persian Ports	21,690	1,33,830	79,900	...	53,930	·36	1·97	1·67
Ceylon	...	...	1,540	1,540	...	...	...	·031
Aden	...	...	375	375	...	...	...	·0078
Arab Coast	...	...	3,375	3,375	...	...	...	·07
Total	59,89,365	67,37,175	47,67,125	...	19,70,050	(27·2 per cent. on 1903).		

DIX B-4

ABBAS.

Comparative statement of total **Exports** *to all countries during the years 1902, 1903 and 1904.*

Country.	1902.	1903.	1904.	Increase	Decrease	Average percentage of total trade for		
				in 1904 as compared with 1903.		1902.	1903.	1904.
	R	R	R	R	R			
United Kingdom	1,34,910	1,13,955	1,12,402	...	1,553	9·24	5·48	6·133
India	10,27,200	10,86,390	13,77,279	2,90,889	...	70·6	53·54	62·6
Russia	25,440	1,710	14,425	12,715	...	1·74	·085	·65
China	48,000	5,83,350	60,260	...	5,23,090	3·29	2·87	3·289
Turkey and Turkish Arabia	94,965	1,06,485	69,080	...	37,405	6·5	5·248	3·81
Switzerland	...	...	23,050*	23,050	...	...	...	1·047
Arabia	4,695	9,480	82,822	73,342	...	·321	·467	3·764
Maskat	1,170	7,245	27,024	19,779	...	·08	·357	1·228
Bahrein	1,860	5,040	13,869	8,829	...	·127	·248	·63
Arab Coast	...	17,550	21,766	4,216	...	...	·865	·989
Koweit	...	2,115	2,027	...	88	...	·1028	·092
Aden	...	300	...	...	300	...	·0148	...
Persian Ports	1,21,725	1,45,860	28,480	...	1,17,380	8·34	7·188	1·294
Total	14,59,965	20,79,480	18,32,484	...	2,46,996	(11·22 per cent on 1903).		

*N. B.—Carpets almost entirely.

APPEN

BUSH

Comparative statement of total ***Imports*** *from all Countries during the years 1902, 1903 and 1904.*

Country.	1902.	1903.	1904.	Increase in 1904 as compared with 1903.	Decrease in 1904 as compared with 1903.	Average percentage of total trade for 1902.	1903.	1904.
	₹	₹	₹	₹	₹			
United Kingdom	83,70,733	69,74,434	58,33,845	...	11,34,589	50·7	48·8	43·5
India	39,25,511	47,59,784	30,60,135	...	16,99,649	23·7	33·3	22·7
Germany	8,16,962	78,381	6,02,115	5,23,734	...	4·95	·541	4·48
Austria	1,40,896	1,01,027	3,75,600	2,74,573	...	·853	·707	2·79
Japan	1,890	...	2,745	2,745	...	·0114	...	·0171
Sweden	...	...	30,570	30,570	...	...	...	·227
France	13,98,603	6,86,522	10,47,180	3,60,658	...	8·47	4·805	7·79
Russia	...	...	5,04,945	5,04,945	...	...	...	3·75
Bahrein	52,850	32,203	31,740	...	463	·32	·225	·336
Koweit	...	...	31,590	31,590	...	...	...	·235
Maskat	37,714	36,946	7,125	...	29,821	·22	·258	·0531
Turkey	5,53,566	4,58,745	2,93,850	...	1,64,895	3·35	3·21	2·19
Zanzibar	20,800	24,150	6,165	...	17,985	·125	·169	·0459
United States of America	...	...	6,25,485	6,25,485	...	...	...	4·65
Holland	...	2,100	83,025	80,925	...	...	·0147	·617
Italy	...	...	1,080	1,080	...	...	...	·008
Belgium	3,36,509	46,225	3,29,670	2,83,445	...	2·039	·323	2·45
China	2,05,928	4,02,124	3,04,485	...	97,639	1·24	2·81	2·26
Ceylon	...	10,309	27,810	17,501	...	...	·0621	·207
Dutch Indies (Java)	...	...	1,18,050	1,18,050	...	..	...	·8819
Egypt	23,960	14,250	20,925	6,675	...	·145	·099	·155
Switzerland	...	...	1,635	1,635	...	...	...	·0121
Other Countries	*6,23,179	†6,28,257	1,605	...	6,26,652	3·776	4·39	·012
	1,65,09,101	1,42,55,457	1,33,47,375	...	9,08,082	(— 6·3 per cent. on 1903)		

NOTE.—The figures for 1902, 1903 are taken from the Official Administration Report, 1903-04, and those for 1904 from statistics (in £

*	₹
Persian Ports	6,22,979
Arab Coast	200
	6,23,179

†	₹
Persian Ports	6,15,851
Arab Coast	4,090
Arabia	8,316
	6,28,257

DIX B-5.

IRE.

Comparative statement of total ***Exports*** *to all Countries during the years 1902, 1903 and 1904.*

Country.	1902.	1903.	1904.	Increase in 1904 as compared with 1903.	Decrease in 1904 as compared with 1903.	Average percentage of total trade for 1902.	1903.	1904.
	₹	₹	₹	₹	₹			
United Kingdom	13,57,898	7,73,540	10,87,905	3,14,365	..	25·9	11·98	15·94
India	12,78,125	13,78,976	18,43,665	4,64,689	...	24·4	21·34	27·05
Germany	35,486	15,887	69,795	53,908	...	·67	·244	1·01
Belgium	24,400	1,37,825	2,115	...	1,35,710	·46	2·116	·031
France	5,390	27,465	51,840	24,375	...	·102	·425	·76
Holland	...	4,125	105	...	4,020	...	·064	·0015
Turkey	2,07,719	3,85,916	4,17,285	31,369	...	3·98	5·96	6·4
Bahrein	57,443	2,23,926	1,26,435	...	97,491	1·1	3·44	1·85
Russia	...	...	98,640	98,640	...	...	...	1·44
Maskat	14,260	45,741	6,390	...	39,351	·262	·707	·097
Koweit	...	...	23,445	23,445	...	...	...	·34
Oman	...	...	3,555	3,555	...	...	...	·052
Egypt	2,01,476	4,15,377	3,12,165	...	1,03,212	3·86	6·42	4·57
China	17,95,430	27,89,600	27,71,400	...	18,200	34·27	43·17	40·5
Arabia	...	...	360	360	...	...	...	·0052
Aden	...	...	3,630	3,630	...	...	...	·053
Zanzibar	12,540	6,740	1,785	...	4,955	·24	·102	·026
Malta	...	300	2,595	2,295	...	...	·0004	·038
Other Countries	*2,32,858	†2,50,212	1,605	...	2,48,607	4·44	3·87	·023
	52,23,025	64,55,630	68,24,715	3,69,085	...	+ 5·7 per cent. on 1903		

Sterling) furnished by the Consulate at Bushire, since there is a very considerable discrepancy in the two statements for the year 1903.

* Arab Coast . . . . ₹ 22,164
Cyprus 1,050
Persian Ports 2,09,644
2,32,858

† Arab Coast . . . . ₹ 61,913
Cyprus 5,265
Persian Ports 1,81,503
Japan 1,150
Singapore 306
Batavia 75
2,50,212

APPEN

Comparative Table of shipping at the principal ports of

			Entered.							
			Number.				Tonnage.			
			1901.	1902.	1903.	1904.	1901.	1902.	1903.	1904.
Mohammerah	British	Sea	96(c)	107	106	83 (a)	107,296	129,403	121,942	156,438
		River	24	24	39		3,213	3,272	5,713	
	Russian	Sea	§2	1	4	...	1,314	1,598	4,987	...
		River	...	...	...		...	...	...	
	Persian	Sea	...	...	...	11 (d)	...	...	...	70
		River								
	Total		112	132	149	94(f)	111,823	134,273	132,642	156,508
Bushire	British		134	183	189	158 (h)	127,010	154,329	190,802	205,516
	Austrian		...	1	...	...	...	1,280	...	...
	Turkish		50	81	60	...	2,000	4,013	1,800	...
	Maskat		10	25	20	...	800	2,000	1,600	...
	Arab		80	150	70	...	3,200	4,500	2,100	...
	Persian		350	300	350	1,061(l)	8,750	7,500	7,750	1,840
	Russian		3	3	5	3 (n)	4,513	4,270	6,940	11,000
	Total		627	743	694	1,222 (p)	146,273	174,792	210,992	218,356
Lingah	British		203	207	158	148 (r)	102,000	115,850	90,200	217,893
	French		8	6	4	...	640	480	320	...
	Turkish		41	49	37	273	3,404	3,960	4,250	160
	Maskat		50	40	25	...	2,000	1,600	1,000	...
	Arab		100	85	125	...	3,000	2,400	3,750	...
	Persian		120	95	120	54	5,161	4,085	5,040	30
	Russian		2	2	3	7(t)	2,200	2,200	3,300	6,588
	Total		524	484	472	482(v)	118,400	130,575	107,860	224,671
Bander Abbas	British		175	200 *2	177	163 (x)	144,540	156,780 *180	215,540	240,909
	Austrian		...	1	...	...	...	2,000	...	...
	Turkish		2	1	1	4	180	2,000	2,000	3
	Maskat		11	8	6	...	660	480	360	...
	Arab		7	6	10	...	980	840	1,000	...
	Persian		130	78 *5	55	...	3,900	2,140 *150	1,375	...
	Russian		3	4 *2	8	5 (z)	6,000	8,000 *4,000	16,000	11,580
	Total		328	298 *9	257	172 (β)	156,260	172,240 *4,330	236,275	252,492

* Vessels in ballast.

(c) Five years' average for Mohammerah from Administration Report, 1903-04.
§ Given as 1·6 in 5 years' average.

Cargo.

(f)	Average draught in feet,	..	13·65
(p)	" " "	..	4·6
(q)	" " "	..	8·67
(v)	" " "	.	11·14
(β)	" " "	.	22·06
(δ)	" " "	.	22·03

Incorrectly calculated in the official Persian returns.

DIX B-6.

Persia and Arabistan in the Persian Gulf (1901-1904).

			Cleared.							
			Number.				Tonnage.			
			1901.	1902.	1903.	1904.	1901.	1902.	1903.	1904.
Mohammerah	British	Sea	79	86	82	70 (b)	84,411	89,990	88,803	114,765
		River	23	24	39		3,128	3,272	5,713	
	Russian	Sea	1	1	2	...	1,270	1,598	2,326	...
		River	...	...	...		...	...	...	
	Persian	Sea	...	...	...	6 (e)	...	...	...	58
		River								
	Total		103	111	123	76 (g)	88,809	94,860	96,842	114,823
Bushire	British		132	167	141	121 (k)	127,749	136,083	111,875	156,794
	Austrian		...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
	Turkish		61	81	60	...	3,342	4,013	1,800	...
	Maskat		10	25	20	...	800	2,000	1,600	...
	Arab		80	150	70	...	3,200	4,500	2,100	...
	Persian		325	280	300	690 (m)	8,430	7,000	7,500	1,286
	Russian		3	3	5	3 (o)	4,513	4,270	6,940	8,668
	Total		601	706	598	814 (q)	148,034	157,866	131,815	166,748
Lingah	British		132	127	102	150 (s)	59,425	60,330	57,535	222,687
	French		5	6	4	...	400	480	320	...
	Turkish		26	21	17	286	2,350	2,000	2,850	140
	Maskat		30	40	20	...	1,200	1,600	800	...
	Arab		80	82	125	...	2,400	2,460	3,750	...
	Persian		80	75	100	77	3,440	3,225	4,200	39
	Russian		3	2	3	8 (u)	3,200	2,200	3,300	7,604
	Total		356	353	371	521 (w)	72,515	72,295	72,755	230,470
Bunder Abbas	British		175	200 *2	177	162 (y)	144,540	156,780 *180	215,540	239,420
	Austrian		...	1	...	...	...	2,000	...	...
	Turkish		2	1	1	4	180	2,000	2,000	3
	Maskat		11	8	6	...	660	480	360	...
	Arab		7	6	10	...	980	840	1,000	...
	Persian		128	79 *5	55	...	3,840	2,170 *150	1,375	...
	Russian		3	4 *2	8	5 (a)	6,000	*8,000 *4,000	16,000	11,520
	Total		326	299 *9	257	171 (d)	156,200	172,270 *4,330	236,275	251,003

Cargo.

Average draught in feet.

(a)	14	(k)	18	(r)	11	(y)	22
(b)	14	(l)	3	(s)	11	(z)	23
(d)	11	(m)	7	(t)	14	(*)	23
(e)	14	(n)	16	(u)	11		
(h)	15	(o)	17		22		

APPENDIX B-7.

Comparative statement of ***Imports*** *into Bushire from India for the years 1903 and 1904 classified according to Custom House Tariff.*

Average rate of Exchange per £ sterling for the years 1903 and 1904 was Krans 57½ and 59, respectively.

Description of Goods.	Value in £. 1903. £ s. d.	Value in £. 1904. £ s. d.	Increase. £ s. d.	Decrease. £ s. d.	Remarks.
Matches	...	23 0 0	23 0 0	...	
Arms and ammunition	2 0 0	...	...	2 0 0	
Bank notes	...	127 0 0	127 0 0	...	
Butter and edible fats	206 0 0	27 0 0	...	179 0 0	
Wood for building	729 0 0	1,066 0 0	337 0 0	...	
„ manufactures	93 0 0	1 0 0	...	92 0 0	
„ others not named	...	13 0 0	13 0 0	...	
Wine, in bottles	16 0 0	...	...	16 0 0	
„ in casks	...	9 0 0	9 0 0	...	
Brandy, rum, whisky	...	43 0 0	43 0 0	...	
Beers and vinegars	...	1 0 0	1 0 0	...	
Lemonades	...	2 0 0	2 0 0	...	
Mineral waters	...	12 0 0	12 0 0	...	
Candles	2,683 0 0	2,100 0 0	...	583 0 0	
Cocoa	...	14 0 0	14 0 0	...	
Coffee, not roasted	501 0 0	42 0 0	...	459 0 0	
„ roasted	...	...	...	...	
Coal, coke, charcoal	439 0 0	580 0 0	141 0 0	...	
Raw wax	...	...	...	...	
Alimentary preserves	294 0 0	496 0 0	202 0 0	...	
Rope, cordage, twine	48 0 0	184 0 0	136 0 0	...	
Fresh vegetables	252 0 0	186 0 0	...	66 0 0	
Dry vegetables	256 0 0	517 0 0	261 0 0	...	
Drugs and medicines	1,921 0 0	2,618 0 0	697 0 0	...	
Spices	12,983 0 0	9,066 0 0	...	3,917 0 0	
Packing of all description	189 0 0	...	...	189 0 0	
Yarns and twist	...	...	...	...	
„ of cotton	2,732 0 0	8,416 0 0	5,634 0 0	...	
„ of wool	...	...	...	...	
„ of silk	...	4 0 0	4 0 0	...	
Yarns of linen and hemp	966 0 0	17 0 0	...	949 0 0	
„ jute	1,876 0 0	2,897 0 0	1,021 0 0	...	
Threads of gold and silver	15 0 0	...	...	15 0 0	
„ imitation gold and silver	3 0 0	68 0 0	65 0 0	...	
Fruits and berries—					
Almonds and pistachios	15 0 0	...	...	15 0 0	
Fresh fruit, not named	9 0 0	...	...	9 0 0	
Other fruits	...	666 0 0	666 0 0	...	
Goloshes	3 0 0	...	...	3 0 0	
Oilcloth	3 0 0	10 0 0	7 0 0	...	
Gum	13 0 0	2 0 0	...	11 0 0	
Grains—					
Wheat	1,356 0 0	...	...	1,356 0 0	
Barley and oats	133 0 0	136 0 0	3 0 0	...	
Rice	7,186 0 0	8,255 0 0	1,069 0 0	...	
All others	118 0 0	...	...	118 0 0	
Macaroni and vermicelli	4 0 0	16 0 0	12 0 0	...	
Edible flours	2,689 0 0	1,079 0 0	...	1,610 0 0	
Starch and other non-edible feculæ	...	4 0 0	4 0 0	...	
Clothing	306 0 0	734 0 0	428 0 0	...	
Oils—					
Olive oil	...	1 0 0	1 0 0	...	
Other oils	38 0 0	99 0 0	61 0 0	...	
Kerosine and naphtha	50 0 0	...	...	50 0 0	
Pianos	...	...	...	...	
Other musical instruments	...	...	...	...	
Scientific instruments	...	143 0 0	143 0 0	...	
Animal product		85 0 0	85 0 0	...	
Mineral product	126 0 0	22 0 0	...	104 0 0	
Mercery and Hardware	632 0 0	1,576 0 0	944 0 0	...	
Carried over £	38,935 0 0	41,357 0 0	2,418 0 0	...	

Comparative statement of **Imports** *into Bushire from India for the years 1903 and 1904 classified according to Custom House Tariff*—contd.

Average rate of Exchange per £ sterling for the years 1903 and 1904 was Krans 57½ and 59, respectively.

Description of Goods.	Value in £. 1903.	Value in £. 1904.	Increase.	Decrease.	Remarks.
	£ s. d.	£ s. d.	£ s. d.	£ s. d.	
Brought forward	38,935 0 0	41,357 0 0	2,418 0 0	...	
Metals—					
Scrap iron, iron in ingots	17 0 0	74 0 0	57 0 0	...	
Iron and steel, in bars, sheets, wire	162 0 0	521 0 0	359 0 0	...	
Tin plate, in sheets	70 0 0	42 0 0	...	28 0 0	
Manufactures of iron and steel	156 0 0	1,001 0 0	845 0 0	...	
Tin, zinc, lead, in ingots, bars, etc.	8,131 0 0	4,093 0 0	...	4,038 0 0	
Manufactures of tin, zinc, lead	20 0 0	32 0 0	12 0 0	...	
Copper and nickel, in bars, wire, etc.	489 0 0	1,804 0 0	1,315 0 0	...	
Manufactures of copper and nickel	90 0 0	319 0 0	229 0 0	...	
,, of gold, silver and precious metals	...	170 0 0	170 0 0	...	
Other metals, in ingots, bars, etc.	11 0 0	156 0 0	145 0 0	...	
Manufactures of other metals	...	...	...	...	
Furniture of all kinds	21 0 0	675 0 0	654 0 0	...	
Gold watches	...	51 0 0	51 0 0	...	
Silver watches	...	75 0 0	75 0 0	...	
Other watches	...	98 0 0	98 0 0	...	
Ordinary writing paper and envelopes	30 0 0	261 0 0	231 0 0	...	
Paperwares	22 0 0	40 0 0	18 0 0	...	
Perfumery	8 0 0	9 0 0	1 0 0	...	
Skins, dried and salted	49 0 0	157 0 0	108 0 0	...	
Chamois and other leathers	291 0 0	493 0 0	202 0 0	...	
Leatherwares	195 0 0	316 0 0	121 0 0	...	
Stones, worked or unworked	5 0 0	20 0 0	15 0 0	...	
Precious stones, cut or uncut	33 0 0	...	...	33 0 0	
Fish, dried, salted, etc.	...	12 0 0	12 0 0	...	
Chinaware, porcelain, earthenware	5 0 0	74 0 0	69 0 0	...	
Pottery, other kinds	7 0 0	3 0 0	...	4 0 0	
Chemical products	95 0 0	271 0 0	176 0 0	...	
Printed matter	633 0 0	1,899 0 0	1,266 0 0	...	
Soap, perfumed	22 0 0	13 0 0	...	9 0 0	
,, others	69 0 0	88 0 0	19 0 0	...	
Sugar, loaf and candy	4 0 0	5 0 0	1 0 0	...	
,, soft, moist, and syrups	25 0 0	827 0 0	802 0 0	...	
Sweets	7 0 0	45 0 0	38 0 0	...	
Unmanufactured tobacco	...	...	...	...	
Cigars, cigarettes, and manufactured tobacco	105 0 0	159 0 0	54 0 0	...	
Indigo, Kermez	18,707 0 0	26,129 0 0	7,422 0 0	...	
All other dyes, colours, and varnishes	112 0 0	75 0 0	...	37 0 0	
Flax, hemp, and other vegetable fibres, raw	...	59 0 0	59 0 0	...	
Tissues of cotton	3,360 0 0	16,376 0 0	13,016 0 0	...	
Other tissues of cotton	1,178 0 0	14 0 0	...	1,164 0 0	
Cotton tulles, embroidered or not	11 0 0	366 0 0	355 0 0	...	
Woollen carpets	...	1 0 0	1 0 0	...	
,, shawls	11,657 0 0	1,733 0 0	...	9,924 0 0	
Tissues of wool	4,384 0 0	323 0 0	...	4,061 0 0	
,, silk	229 0 0	172 0 0	...	57 0 0	
Tissues of silk with real or imitation gold and silver threads	186 0 0	245 0 0	59 0 0	...	
Laces and embroidery	133 0 0	80 0 0	...	53 0 0	
Tissues, not named	168 0 0	505 0 0	337 0 0	...	
,, of jute	3 0 0	30 0 0	27 0 0	...	
Tea	27,601 0 0	33,282 0 0	5,681 0 0	...	
Vegetable substances	24 0 0	95 0 0	71 0 0	...	
Glass ornaments and glassware	3 0 0	174 0 0	171 0 0	...	
Window glass	...	25 0 0	25 0 0	...	
Mirrors, not framed	...	39 0 0	39 0 0	...	
Carriages	2 0 0	223 0 0	221 0 0	...	
Dry fruits, not named	793 0 0	...	...	793 0 0	
Specie	13,949 0 0	68,903 0 0	54,954 0 0	...	
Total	132,207 0 0	204,009 0 0	...	...	Net increase £71,802

B-7—*contd.*

Comparative Statement of Exports to India from Bushire for the years 1903 and 1904 classified according to Customs House Tariff.

Average rate of exchange per £ sterling for the years 1903 and 1904 was krs. 57½ and 59, respectively.

Description of goods.	Value, 1903.	Value, 1904.	Increase.	Decrease.	Remarks.
	£ s. d.	£ s. d.	£ s. d.	£ s. d.	
Horses and foals	4,333 0 0	4,202 0 0	...	131 0 0	
Mules	...	4,444 0 0	4,444 0 0	...	
Sheep, lambs, goats	53 0 0	69 0 0	16 0 0	...	
Other animals	45 0 0	90 0 0	45 0 0	...	
Butter and edible fats	319 0 0	90 0 0	...	...	
Wood, manufactured	...	13 0 0	13 0 0	229 0 0	
Wines in casks, carboys, etc.	21 0 0	46 0 0	25 0 0	...	
Brandy, rum, whisky	3 0 0	6 0 0	3 0 0	...	
Beers and vinegars	28 0 0	31 0 0	3 0 0	...	
Lemonades	12 0 0	16 0 0	4 0 0	...	
Coal, coke, charcoal	1,275 0 0	2,669 0 0	1,394 0 0	...	
Alimentary preserves	6 0 0	5 0 0	...	1 0 0	
Salt	1 0 0	1 0 0	...	...	
Fresh vegetable	...	21 0 0	21 0 0	...	
Dry vegetable	1 0 0	72 0 0	71 0 0	...	
Eggs	16 0 0	22 0 0	6 0 0	...	
Honey	2 0 0	5 0 0	3 0 0	...	
Fresh milk	...	3 0 0	3 0 0	...	
Provisions not named	...	3 0 0	3 0 0	...	
Drugs and medicines	3,386 0 0	13,011 0 0	9,625 0 0	...	
Spices	6 0 0	2 0 0	...	4 0 0	
Dates	747 0 0	1,781 0 0	1,034 0 0	...	
Almonds and pistachios	12,366 0 0	27,780 0 0	15,414 0 0	...	
Dry grapes	996 0 0	1,101 0 0	105 0 0*	...	* 106 entered by Consulate, a clerical error.
Oranges and lemons	...	1 0 0	1 0 0	...	
Fresh fruits not named	13 0 0	16 0 0	3 0 0	...	
Dry fruits not named	136 0 0	64 0 0	...	72 0 0	
Gum	7,699 0 0	13,353 0 0	5,654 0 0	...	
Grains :—					
Wheat	327 0 0	38 0 0	...	289 0 0	
Barley and oats	186 0 0	142 0 0	...	44 0 0	
Rice	27 0 0	211 0 0	184 0 0	...	
Other grains	292 0 0	...	...	292 0 0	
Edible flowers	15 0 0	41 0 0	26 0 0	...	
Clothings	75 0 0	88 0 0	13 0 0	...	
Oils :—					
Kerosine and naphtha	...	10 0 0	10 0 0	...	
Other oils	4 0 0	6 0 0	2 0 0	...	
Scientific instruments	...	...	...	...	
Animal product	14 0 0	19 0 0	5 0 0	...	
Mineral product	...	4 0 0	4 0 0	...	
Carried over	£32,404 0 0	69,476 0 0	37,072 0 0	...	

Comparative Statement of Exports to India from Bushire for the years 1903 and 1904 classified according to Customs House Tariff.—contd.

Average rate of exchange per £ sterling for the years 1903 and 1904 was krs. 57½ and 59, respectively.

Description of goods.	Value, 1903.	Value, 1904.	Increase.	Decrease.	Remarks.
	£ s. d.	£ s. d.	£. s. d.	£ s. d.	
Brought forward	32,404 0 0	69,476 0 0	37,072 0 0	...	
Metals :—					
Manufactures of iron	...	2 0 0	2 0 0	...	
Manufactures of copper	9 0 0	21 0 0	12 0 0	...	
Manufactures of gold, silver, and platinum.	58 0 0	71 0 0	13 0 0	...	
Mercery and hardware	19 0 0	99 0 0	80 0 0	...	
Furniture of all kinds	23 0 0	78 0 0	55 0 0	...	
Objects of art and collection	94 0 0	391 0 0	297 0 0	...	
Perfumery	...	4 0 0	4 0 0	...	
Skins, raw and undressed	7,105 0 0	17,159 0 0	10,054 0 0	...	
Skins, dressed	417 0 0	1,099 0 0	682 0 0*	...	* 684 entered by Consulate, a clerical error.
Leatherwares	...	2 0 0	2 0 0	...	
Stones, worked or unworked	...	15 0 0	15 0 0	...	
Precious stones, cut or uncut	25 0 0	17 0 0	...	8 0 0	
Fish, fresh, dry salted, etc.	22 0 0	6 0 0	...	16 0 0	
Chinaware, porcelain, earthenware	...	25 0 0	25 0 0	...	
Pottery, all others	37 0 0	...	...	37 0 0	
Chemical products	...	2 0 0	2 0 0	...	
Printed matter	70 0 0	111 0 0	41 0 0	...	
Forage	...	...	...	...	
Soap, all kinds	...	2 0 0	2 0 0	...	
Sugar, loaf and candy	...	5 0 0	5 0 0	...	
Sugar, soft	4 0 0	30 0 0	26 0 0	...	
Sweets	47 0 0	6 0 0	...	41 0 0	
Manufactured tobacco	7 0 0	66 0 0	59 0 0	...	
Dyes, colors, varnishes : all others not named.	550 0 0	...	...	550 0 0	
Textiles :—					
Raw cotton	102 0 0	4,601 0 0	4,499 0 0	...	
Raw and waste wool	336 0 0	472 0 0	136 0 0	...	
Tissues of cotton	21 0 0	398 0 0	377 0 0	...	
Woollen carpet	3,761 0 0	2,046 0 0	...	1,715 0 0	
Tissues of wool	14 0 0	22 0 0	8 0 0	...	
Silken carpet	96 0 0	324 0 0	228 0 0	...	
Tissues of silk	16 0 0	93 0 0	77 0 0	...	
Laces of embroidery	...	...	...	...	
Tissues : all others	9 0 0	15 0 0	6 0 0	...	
Tea	9 0 0	1 0 0	...	8 0 0	
Vegetable substances such as seeds, kernels, rosewater, etc.	6,712 0 0	1,267 0 0	...	5,445 0 0	
Glass ornaments and glassware	2 0 0	2 0 0	...	...	
Carriages	...	...	...	...	
Specie	10,210 0 0	24,983 0 0	14,773 0 0	...	
Total	62,179 0 0	1,22,911 0 0			Net increase £60,732.

B-7—*contd.*

Comparative Table showing the total value and value of principal articles of export from the port of Bander Abbas to India during the years 1903 and 1904.

Name of articles.	1903.		1904.	
	Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.
		R		R
Horses	...	...	Head 1	125
Other sorts of animals	Heads 45	162	...	608
Cattle	...	...	...	365
Cotton piece-goods	Packages 18	1,504	...	...
Other sorts of piece-goods	...	...	Packages 2	241
Cotton (raw)	Cwt. 191	3,417	Cwt. 2,219	41,282
Dates	3,564	14,256	11,581	41,520
Assafœtida	8,080	1,49,550	9,253	1,54,404
Rose water	1,951	22,427	...	...
Vanilla and saffron	...	...	...	1,887
Other sorts of medicines	4,166	31,582	6,560	52,950
Dyeing and colouring materials	1,524	10,553	1,188	7,103
Almonds	15,562	2,06,208	21,464	3,87,164
Raisins and Currants	14,626	1,90,614	25,123	1,92,829
Other sorts of fruits	2,166	19,347	5,161	58,589
Grain of other sorts	84	674	228	2,973
Gum	2,278	66,522	386	12,674
Hardware	...	...	36	645
Hides and skins	Packages 648	30,082	Packages 123	8,532
Mat and mat bags	60	715	...	...
Opium	6 lbs.	86	Chests 216	4,900
Pearls	...	...	...	1,000
Ghee	Cwt. 1	16	Cwt. 3	112
Sugar	...	...	2	15
Other sort of provisions	3	17	325	2,564
Seeds, other sorts	4,059	57,008	...	...
Silk piece-goods	Cases 5	1,915	Cases 27	10,901
Silk apparel	...	...	...	1,632
Spices	Cwt. 72	1,926	...	...
Tobacco	142	1,636	Cwt. 14	275
Wool	4,196	1,01,736	4,372	1,12,343
Woollen carpets	Bundles 148	42,763	Bundles 162	58,081
Other sorts	7	2,004	10	5,215
Specie	...	1,27,175	...	2,15,400
Articles not specified above	...	2,445	...	950
Other goods	...	9,93,140	...	4,55,195
TOTAL	...	20,79,480	...	18,32,474
Decrease	...	...	...	5,37,945

B-7—*contd.*

Comparative Table showing the total value and value of principal articles of import from India into the Port of Bander Abbas during the years 1903 and 1904.

Name of articles.	1903.		1904.	
	Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.
		R		R
Apparel, wearing	...	2,508	...	4,646
Books and printed matter	Packages 204	7,432	Packages 253	6,554
Candles	...	...	Cases 82	785
Canvas	...	...	lbs 14	60
Coffee	Cwt. 424	17,586	Cwt. 157	5,975
Coir and coir rope	77	1,535	44	782
Cotton piece goods	Bundles 1,164	1,84,502	Bundles 1,241	1,98,380
Other sorts	156	45,027	...	...
Cotton (raw)	...	...	Cwt. 170	3,125
Yarn and twist	Cases 3,839	4,35,815	Cases 5,124	8,91,494
Drugs and medicines	Cwt. 321	19,950	...	13,652
Salts and chemicals	...	...	Cwt. 184	4,721
Indigo (dyeing and colouring materials)	Cwt. 514	55,822	1,266	1,44,856
Colours and paints	17½	1,773	¼	20
Other sorts	...	...	6	174
Fruits and vegetables	932	13,939	1,129	15,595
Furniture	...	2,015	...	2,673
Glassware	Cases 2	97	Cases 71	3,494
Glass	13	1,264	62	535
Other sorts	17	1,769	1	62
Gold lace	...	...	...	134
Gold thread	...	88	...	691
Wheat	Cwt. 17,090	86,012	Cwt. 4,600	12,702
Barley	8,966	44,256	1,198	5,626
Rice	14,422	1,09,561	15,316	1,00,268
Other sorts	2,144	10,866	367	1,343
Haberdashery	Cases 37	5,651	...	...
Hardware and cutlery	130	18,900	...	12,040
Hides and skins	...	3,203	...	2,125
Jute, and manufactures of	Bundles 975	20,299	Bundles 1,025	30,637
Lamps and lamp ware	12	700	...	100
Leather, and manufactures of	...	270	...	...
Saddlery, harness, boot and shoes, etc.	Cases 7	610	Cases 2	264
Beer	...	...	128	557
Other sorts of spirits	Cases 25	42	Cases 21	78
Matches	4	183	71	2,809
Mats and mat bags	Bundles 4	46	Bundles 2	42
Carried over	...	10,91,721	...	14,66,909

Increase Rs. 3,75,188

B-7—*concld.*

Comparative Table showing the total value and value of principal articles of import from India into the Port of Bander Abbas during the years 1903 and 1904—contd.

Name of articles.	1903.		1904.	
	Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.
		R		R
Brought forward	...	10,91,721	...	14,66,909
	Cwt.		Cwt.	
Copper	231	10,535	28	1,538
Tin	1,014	30,949	27	660
India	800	16,733	257	4,013
Brass	6	214	...	...
Other metal	85	1,598	Cwt. 66	614
Oil, kerosine	...	...	Cases 184	680
Other oils	Cases 350	3,550	170	2,639
Pearls	...	...	...	492
Perfumery	Cases 1	38	Cases 4	108
China ware	3	183	3	29
Cocoanuts	Cwt. 527	12,076	....	....
Flour	Cwt. 21,759	1,01,202	Cwt. 15,437	67,092
Ghee	175	10,478	63	2,544
Other provisions	75	1,585	44	710
Rubber and gum	...	...	...	40
Silk (raw)	...	...	Cwt. 1	856
Soap	...	...	52	855
Silk piece-goods	...	489	...	4,562
Turmeric	Cases 407	11,629	...	...
Ginger	453	5,211	...	...
Black pepper	919	22,975	...	...
Other spices	Cwt. 2,866	1,05,404	Cwt. 1,813	55,599
Stationery	Cases 126	6,494	Cases 357	5,071
Sugar, soft	...	...	Cwt. 58	1,000
Sugarcandy	Cwt. 442	7,364	Cwt. 820	10,572
Tea	16,451	8,27,684	6,814	3,18,063
Planks and beams	...	138	...	82
Rafters	...	101	...	25
Tobacco	Cwt. 4	317	Cwt. 3	258
Manufactures of tobacco	...	...	4½	320
Watches and Clocks	...	...	No. 7	102
Woollen goods	...	...	...	875
Broad cloth	Bundles 6	1,306	Cwt. 3½	1,098
Specie	...	2,86,731	...	3,08,000
Articles, not specified above	...	9,735	...	3,292
Other goods	...	41,70,735	...	25,08,427
TOTAL	...	67,37,175	...	47,67,125
Decrease	...	...	...	19,70,050

APPENDIX B–8.

INDO-EUROPEAN TELEGRAPH RATES.

A, FOREIGN.

Tariff Applicable from 1st July 1904.

(Including Bushire.)

SUB-DIVISION OF TARIFF.			*Vid* TEHRAN.								DESTINATION.	*Vid* BUSHIRE.								SUB-DIVISION OF TARIFF.		
PERSIAN PROPORTION.		JULFA TO DESTINATION.	ODESSA OR ODESSA-EL-ARISH.			BATOUM OR BATOUM-EL-ARISH.			RUSSIA.			TURKEY OR TURKEY AND EL-ARISH.		KARACHI AND MADRAS.		KARACHI AND MOULMEIN.		KARACHI AND BOMBAY.		PERSIAN PROPORTION.	GULF PROPORTION.	FAO OR KARACHI TO DESTINATION.
Bushire. Tehran.	Tehran. Julfa.		All Stations in Persia (except Bushire.)		Bushire.	All Stations in Persia (except Bushire).		Bushire.	All Stations in Persia (except Bushire).		Bushire.											
Francs.	Francs.	Francs.	Francs.	Krans.	Francs.	Francs.	Krans.	Francs.	Francs.	Krans.	Francs.			Francs.	Krans.	Francs.	Krans.	Francs.	Krans.	Francs.	Francs.	Francs.
			VI.		V.	IV.		III.	II.		I.			II.		III.		IV.				
			...		...	...		...	1·45	3·70	1·79	Austria and Hungary	2·28		...		...		...				
			...		...	...		...	1·60	4·20	1·94	Belgium	2·47		...		...		...				
			...		...	...		...	1·52		1·86	Bosnia-Herzegovina	2·15		...		...		...				
			...		...	...		...	1·48		1·82	Bulgaria	2·15		...		...		...				
			...		...	...		...	1·55		1·89	Denmark	2·55		...		...		...				
			...		...	...		...	1·70	4·45	2·04	France	2·37		...		...		...				
												„ Algeria and Tunisia (*vid* Francs Algerian or *vid* Franco-Tunisian Cables)	2·37		...		...		...				
			...		...	...		...	1·70		2·04												
			...		...	...		...	1·50	3·90	1·84	Germany	2·45		...		...		...				
												Great Britain, Ireland and Channel Islands	2·59½		...		...		...				
			...		...	...		...	1·82½	4·75	2·16½	Greece	2·15		...		...		...				
			...		...	...		...	1·81		2·15	„ Islands	2·35		...		...		...				
COL.	II., IV., and VI.		...		...	...		...	2·01		2·35	Holland	2·55		...		...		...		0·60	COL. I. 0·45	Balance.
0·40	0·20	Balance	...		...	...		...	1·60	4·20	1·94	Italy	2·20		...		...		4·61½				
			...		...	...		...	1·57	4·10	1·91	Luxemburg	2·47		...		...		...				
			...		...	...		...	1·60		1·94	Malta	*2·03½		...		...		...				
COL.	I., III., and V.		...		...	...		...	*1·69½		*2·03½	Tripoli (Town Office)	3·14½		...		...		...			COL. IV.	
0·62½	0·31½	Balance	...		...	...		...	*2·32		*2·66	„ (other Offices)	3·29½		...		...		...		0·81	0·68	Balance.
			...		...	...		...	*2·47		*2·81	Montenegro	2·15		...		...		...				
			...		...	...		...	1·52		1·86	Norway	2·75		...		...		...				
			...		...	...		...	1·57		1·91	Portugal	2·67		...		...		...				
			...		...	...		...	2·00		2·34	Russia in Europe and Caucasus	2·56		...		...		...				
			...		...	...		...	0·95	2·50	1·29	Roumania	2·23		...		...		...				
			...		...	...		...	1·40		1·74	Servia	2·15		...		...		...				
			...		...	...		...	1·48		1·82	Spain	2·57		...		...		...				
			...		...	...		...	1·90		2·24	Gibraltar, *vid* Spain	2·67		...		...		...				
			...		...	...		...	2·00		2·34	Sweden	2·68		...		...		...				
			...		...	...		...	1·45		1·79	Switzerland	2·27		...		...		...				
			...		...	...		...	1·52	4·00	1·86	Turkey in Europe	2·05		...		...		...				
			2·00	5·20	2·34	1·90	4·85	2·24	1·71	4·45	2·05	„ Asia	†1·89		...		...		...				
			2·50		2·84	1·65		1·99	2·21		2·55	„ Archipelago	2·05		...		...		...				
			2·50		2·84	1·90		2·24	2·21		2·55	Russia in Asia	2·91		...		...		...				
			...		...	...		...	1·30	3·40	1·64	„ „	...		...		...		...				
			...		...	...		...	...		...	Bokhara	4·01		...		...		...				
			...		...	...		...	2·40		2·74												

* *Vide* Trieste Cable.

† This rate is reduced by 60 cts. on messages exchanged with Turkey in Asia and Bushire.

Tariff applicable from 1st July 1904—contd.

SUB-DIVISION OF TARIFF.			*Vid* TEHRAN.								DESTINATION.	*Vid* BUSHIRE.								SUB-DIVISION OF TARIFF.		
PERSIAN PROPORTION.		JULFA TO DESTINATION.	ODESSA OR ODESSA-EL-ARISH.			BATOUM OR BATOUM-EL-ARISH			RUSSIA.			TURKEY OR TURKEY AND EL-ARISH.		KARACHI AND MADRAS.		KARACHI AND MOULMEIN.		KARACHI AND BOMBAY.		PERSIAN PROPORTION.	GULF PROPORTION.	FAO OR KARACHI TO DESTINATION.
Bushire-Tehran.	Tehran-Julfa.		All Stations in Persia (except Bushire).		Bushire.	All Stations in Persia (except Bushire).		Bushire.	All Stations in Persia (except Bushire.)		Bushire.											
Francs.	Francs.	Francs.	Francs.	Krans.	Francs.	Francs.	Krans.	Francs.	Francs.	Krans.	Francs.		Francs.	Krans.	Francs.	Krans.	Francs.	Krans.	Francs.	Krans.	Francs.	Francs.	Francs.
			VI.		V.	IV.		III.	II.		I.		I.		II.		III.		IV.				
			3·00	7·80	3·34	1·90		2·24	...		...	Egypt.—I.											
			3·25		3·59	2·15		2·49	...		...	„ II.	2·05		...		...	10·40	3·99				
Col. II., 0·40	IV., and 0·20	VI. Balance	3·50		3·84	2·40		2·74	...		...	„ III.	2·30		...		...		4·49				
												„ Suakim (*vid* Eastern Company's Cables)	2·55		...		...		4·74				
			4·60		4·94	3·50		3·34				Suakim (*vid* Egyptian Land Lines)	3·65		...		...		3·66½				
			3·50		3·84	2·40		2·74	...		...		2·55		...		...						
Col. I., 0·62½	III., and 0·31½	V. Balance	6·10		6·44	5·00		5·34	...		...	Hedjaz, *vid* Suakim (Eastern Company's Cables)	5·15	13·40	...		...		5·16½				
			5·00		5·34	3·90		4·24	...		...	„ „ „ (Egyptian Land Lines)	4·05	10·55	...		...						
			...		...	...		...	...		...	Persian Gulf.—Henjam, Jask, and Maskat	...		1·28	3·35	...		...		0·60	0·68	Nil.
0·54	0·27	Balance	...		...	...		...	...		...	*India and Burma*	...		1·84	4·80	...		...		0·81	0·68	Balance.
			...		...	...		...	...		...	*Ceylon*	...		1·94	5·00	...		...				
			...		...	...		...	...		...	Penang	...		3·59		4·86½		...				
			...		...	...		...	...		...	Perak and Native States of Malay Peninsula	...		3·59		4·41½		...				
			...		...	...		...	...		...	Malacca	...		3·59		4·41½		...				
			...		...	...		...	...		...	Singapore	...		3·59		4·26½		...				
			...		...	...		...	...		...	Labuan	...		4·26½		5·36½		...				
			...		...	...		...	...		...	North Borneo	...		4·51½		5·61½		...				
			...		...	...		...	...		...	Cochin-China	...		8·59		3·31½		...				
			...		...	...		...	...		...	Siam	...		4·19		2·81½		...				
			...		...	...		...	...		...	Annam and Tonquin	...		4·34		4·06½		...				
			...		...	...		...	...		...	China—Hong Kong	...		*4·99	13·00	*4·99		...				
												„ Amoy, Foochow, Shanghai, and Gutzlaff	...		*4·99	13·00	*4·99		...				
			...		...	...		...	...		...	Manilla (Island of Luzon)	...		6·04		6·04		...				
			...		...	...		...	...		...	Isles Visayas (Ilo Ilo, Bacolod, or Cebu)	...		6·54		6·54		...			Col. II.	
			...		...	...		...	...		...	Macao	...		5·24		5·24		...		0·81	0·68	Balance.
			...		...	...		...	...		...	Formosa	...		5·54		5·54		...				
			...		...	...		...	...		...	Japan	...		7·04		7·04		...				
			...		...	...		...	...		...	Corea, Fusan, Seoul, and Chemulpo (*vid* Japan)	...		7·79		7·79		...			Col. III.	
			...		...	...		...	...		...	Corea, all other places	...		8·16½		8·16½		...		0·81	0·68	Balance
			...		...	...		...	...		...	Java	...		4·26½		5·21½		...				
			...		...	...		...	...		...	Sumatra, Bali, Celebes, Madura, Banca Billiton, Dutch Borneo, Lambok, Weh or Poeloe-Weh	...		4·76½		5·71½		...				
			...		...	...		...	...		...	Australia, South and West	...		...		...		...				
			...		...	...		...	...		...	„ Victoria	...		...		...		...				
			...		...	...		...	...		...	„ New South Wales	...		4·6208		...		...				
			...		...	...		...	...		...	„ Queensland	...		...		...		...				
			...		...	...		...	...		...	„ Tasmania	...		4·9208		...		...				
			...		...	...		...	...		...	New Zealand	...		5·0208		...		...				
			...		...	...		...	...		...	New Caledonia	...		5·4708		...		...				
			...		...	...		...	...		...	Norfolk Island	...		4·8208		...		...				
			...		...	...		...	...		...	Fiji	...		5·3208		...		...				
			...		...	...		...	...		...	Fanning Island	...		6·60		...		...				

* For all other offices the Chinese Terminal rate should be added.

APPENDIX B-8.

INDO-EUROPEAN TELEGRAPH RATES.

B.—INLAND.

Paid Conversation Tariff in Krans, for every 10 words or fraction of 10 words, between the undermentioned stations.

	Nain.	Anar.	Kerman.	Bam.	Seistan.	Ouroumieh.	Enzeli.	Asterabad.	Torbet.
Tehran	3	4	5	5	5	3	3	3	4
Koom	3	3	3	3	5	3	3	3	4
Kashan	3	3	3	3	5	3	3	3	4
Ispahan	3	3	3	3	5	4	4	4	4
Abadeh	3	3	3	3	5	5	5	5	5
Shiraz	4	4	4	4	5	5	5	5	5
Kazeroon	4	4	4	4	5	5	5	5	5
Borasjoon	4	4	4	4	5	5	5	5	5
Bushire	4	4	5	5	5	5	5	5	5
Nain	...	3	3	3	5	5	5	5	4
Yezd	3	3	3	3	5	5	5	5	4
Anar	3	...	3	3	5	5	5	5	4
Kerman	3	3	...	3	5	5	5	5	5
Bam	3	3	3	...	5	5	5	5	5
Seistan	5	5	5	5	...	5	5	5	5
Meshed	4	4	5	5	5	4	4	4	3
Torbet	4	4	5	5	5	4	4	4	...

APPENDIX C.

TRADE ROUTES

Route No. 1.

Bander Abbas to Nasratabad. (Seistan) *viâ* Minab and Rigan, 27 stages—520 miles.

Three stages—54 miles—to Minab, the road lying at no great distance from the sea shore. Several riverbeds are crossed, and the road is liable to be badly flooded during the rainy season and high spring tides. When the usual route is badly swamped, caravans take a more northerly, and rougher, track. There is little difficulty regarding water supplies or grazing, and good halting places abound in the Minab Plain. From here the track turns northward to Maunjan.

From Minab to Maunjan there are two routes, one, not often used by caravans, of 3 stages, total 42 miles, *viâ* Rain and Chiraghabad, through fairly level country, stony in parts, and in others covered with dense jungle. The other track, most favoured by caravans, runs through the wilderness direct to Maunjan, and is about half the length of the Rain-Chiraghabad loop. Both these roads are liable to be flooded by storm-water carried by the Maunjan River and its tributaries from the hills.

From Maunjan to Rigan there are 9 stages, total 159 miles. The road lies through fairly easy country, where, as a rule, water-supplies and grazing are to be had in sufficient quantity. Three important streams, all of which are liable to flood in the rainy season, and when the snows melt on the mountains, are crossed. These are the Maunjan, the Gino, and the Hileri. There are three kotals, on the road, the Shikarabad (2,172 fet) the Gino (2,154 feet), and the Ghisu (4,102 ft.). Over all these kotals the Persians have, at various times, taken guns, so they present no difficulty for pack animals. The Ghisu Pass can, however, be avoided, and mostly is avoided by camels, by taking the way from Mil-i-Farhad direct to Darhampi, camping place in the Rudkhana Kurund, and going over the easier Sabsu Pass, which is a few miles to the south and west of the Ghisu Pass.

At Rigan, the next stage beyond Darhampi, supplies are taken in for the direct march. Rigan is in ruins, but supplies are collected from adjacent villages.

From Rigan northern-bound kafilas strike across semi-desert country north north-east. skirting the Fairhaj oasis, and join the Bam-Nasratabad road near Tum-i-Reg. From Rigan to Tum-i-Reg, distance is 30 miles, and caravans make the march in 2 or 3 stages.

Tum-i-Reg (Hillocks of Sand) is the last camping ground before the absolute desert, the Lut, that stretches between Narmashahir and Seistan, is entered, and here all preparations for the trying desert march must be completed. Well-diggers ought to be here engaged to dig for water on the march in the few places where brackish water is to be found. Tum-i-Reg being the last place where fresh water is to be had. Good supplies ought to be laid in for the three long marches of 94 miles (done in 5 or 6 stages by camel caravans) to Nasratabad (Ispi). During this march, which is across a hard, stony, and somewhat undulating desert, varied by stretches of sand hills, only very bad and excessively salt water is to be found 5 feet below the surface. The approach to Nasratabad from Gurg is across a range of barren and desolate hills (the crest of the pass 4,900 feet) and through a narrow gorge, at one end of which are the ruins of a darwaza, or gate, said to have been built by Nadir Shah. In the desert are many ruins and ruined kanats, showing that the region was, at one time less desolate than it now is. The march is a very trying one at any time. In the winter better cold is experienced, and in summer the heat is terribly fierce.

From Ispi there is a direct road, leading north across the Lut, 170 miles, to Neh.

Beyond Nasratabad (Ispi) the mountain ranges south-west of Seistan are entered, and the Kerman province is left behind. Once in the Sarhad the road becomes somewhat less trying, and water and grazing are, as a rule, to be had at the stages.

From Nasratabad (Ispi) to Sehkuha, "Three Wells," a one-time capital of Seistan, are four long marches, 118 miles in all. Caravans of camels, however, seldom do more than 10 or 12 miles a day, and camp out wherever they can find either grass or water, or wherever the beasts are done, taking thus 10 to 12 days to cover the distance. The whole route is through desolate country.

From Sehkuha onward the country changes, and the road is over a clay plain, much cut up with irrigation channels, and diversified with great patches of shifting sand hills. Irrigation channels are found even where there is now no cultivation. The cultivable area in Seistan is ever changing, now increasing, now being contracted, according to the state of the Helmund, and of the great *Hamun*.

The distance from Sehkuha to Nasratabad (Seistan) is 23 miles, divided into two stages, halts being made at the village of Sadiki, or Sergazi. At Nasratabad there is a Persian fort and garrison, a fair sized bazaar, and Russian and British Consulates. From here caravan tracks strike west and north-west, to Neh and Birjand, and northward to Lash Juwain.

Route No. 2. *Bander Abbas to Kerman.*—Winter route, *viâ* Maunjan, Khanu, Jiruft, Raiin and the Haneka Pass.

No. 2 A. Alternative route for Khorasan and Seistan caravans, *viâ* Khanu to Mil-i-Farhad, used when main road is unsafe or flooded.

No. 2 B. Branch to Bam, from Murgak.

Route No. 2. 19 stages, 332 miles.

From Bander Abbas, the road runs north-west, 26 miles, to Kala Kazi, then, bending a little more west, runs to the village of Takht across a stony plain. At Takht the road goes almost due west, and the character of the country changes, the road lying now across a plain of rich alluvial soil, with scarcely a stone on it. The plain is in parts well wooded, and at its southern end is marshy and cut up by ravines. After the Rud Khana Shur is passed all the other streams are found to be sweet. The going continues good to the village of Shamil, 46 miles from Bander Abbas, which is situated in extensive palm groves, and surrounded by much cultivation. Shamil is, in a direct line, only 3 *farsakhs*, less than 12 miles, from the sea coast. Minab lies 8 *farsakhs* south west from Shamil, and 2 from the sea. There is a caravan track between Shamil and Minab, which is used sometimes by Bander Abbas-Seistan caravans when the southern routes are rendered Inpracticable by floods. From Shamil there is a long and trying march to Fariab (Pariab) (65 miles from Bander Abbas) across a hard, stony plain, much cut up by water courses. The hills are entered in this march, and much climbing and descending has to be gone through. There is a good camping ground at Fariab with good water, fire wood and grazing. Between Fariab and Rudkhana-i-Duzdi, a very steep and difficult pass, the Gudar-i-Shuran, is crossed. From Rudkhana-i-Duzdi, there is an alternative road to Bam and Jiruft avoiding the Kuh-i-Garak, and the Diwan-i-Murad. The usual track runs, however, to Deh Bakri, or rather Murgak, by way of Ispid, Khanu, Soran, and Dosari, across the Halil Rud. On this last bit of road, between Dosari and Deh Bakri three passes (the Gudar Surkh, the Gudas Ushteran, and the Gudar-i-Deh Bakri) have to be crossed. The road is good however, and the passes easy, though the ascent from Sakhdar in the valley to the higher slopes of the Jabel Bariz is steep.

From Murgak (220 miles from Bander Abbas) there are 3 stages, 50 miles, to Raiin, the wind scourged villages of Sarbistan and Pah Bané affording halting places and supplies to caravans. A few miles beyond Raiin, which is an important little town, the Haneka Pass (8,000 feet) is crossed by an easy road. At Haneka serai, water and grazing, but no supplies, can be procured. From here to Kerman is 36 miles, a tract being made at the large village of Mahun, 24 miles from Kerman.

This alternative route strikes north east from Khanu, crosses the Halil Rud below Gaz Sala in Jiruft, and again meets the main track at Mil-i-Farhad, after crossing the desert from Sang-i-Safeid by way of Beijanabad, 120 miles. Water, grazing, and limited supplies to be had most of the way. 2 R.

From Murgak the road to Bam crosses the river, and climbs over the hills on the right bank to the Bam plain. The distance is about 40 miles, and the village of Darzin stands a little more than halfway along the road. 2 B.

From Sarbistan on the Murgak-Kerman route a track goes northward, and strikes the Kerman Bam post road at Abarah, distant about 14 miles. This route is often taken when there is snow upon the Haneka Pass.

Bander Abbas to Kerman, viâ the Tang-i-Zindan, Daulatabad and Baft, main kafila route. Route No. 3.

18 stages, 289 miles.

After the road from Bander Abbas to Sir-i-Sikh camping ground (for this see Itinerary of Mission, stages 1 to 4) has been negotiated, the track tending almost due north, climbs out of the Ahmedi nalla by way of the Rud-i-Pur, which enters the main stream from the right, mounts the plateau near the village of Shigalo, and gains the village of Pur. Leaving Pur, the road dips in to a deep ravine and then proceeds to Daulatabad across the Gudar-i-Arabi pass, passing through several hamlets where good water and limited supplies are to be had. Between Chah-i-Gandu, a spring in a date grove, far from any village, and Daulatabad the road climbs up another step of the plateau, on to the Daulatabad plain. At Daulatabad good water, grazing, and supplies. From Daulatabad (3,450 feet) the road climbs steadily northward through the stages of Kala Kazi (5,500feet), Saichu (6,100 feet), Kush Kuh (6,600 feet), to Baft (7,220 feet); along this stretch of road water, grazing, and fuel are to be had, and limited supplies are also obtainable. Near Baft a track connecting Saiadabad and Raiin, by way of Sardu, crosses the Bander Abbas-Kerman caravan route.

Leaving Baft, a large village, head-quarters of an important district, and where all supplies are available, the road ascends the skirts of a range of low hills, and reaches Nagar 5 miles off by way of the fertile Kaskan valley, crossing the Kuh-i-dilazar under which the valley is situated by the Gudar-i-Kafanu (6,200 feet). Before reaching Nagar the road, an easy one, lies through several well watered valleys, in which stand many villages. The Gudar-i-Zarchi (9,260 feet) is also crossed. Nagar is a large village, in which stands a caravan serai, partly ruined. The track from Mashish to Raiin passes through the place.

Between Nagar and Chari, distant 20 miles, the next stage, the Gudar-i-Khun (7,240 feet) is crossed. The road over this pass and the Zarchi is, however, an easy one. The Gudar has been named the "Pass of Blood" from the number of muleteers and travellers who have been murdered there by Nomad raiders. There is water, grazing, and a caravan serai, but no village, and no supplies at Chari, where stand the ruins of an old fort and watch tower. Supplies can, however, be collected, as at Rigan on the Seistan road from neighbouring villages.

Leaving Chari, the Rud-i-Chari is crossed. The stream comes down from the lofty Jupar (12,100 feet) and is a dangerous one in wet weather, or when the snows melt. Bagin is passed, and after a somewhat difficult march, much of it through heavy sand, Kerman is reached.

Route No. 4. *Bander Abbas to Saiadabad and Bahramabad.*—To Saiadabad 282 miles, 14 stages. To Bahramabad 379 miles, 19 stages.

See Itinerary of Mission, stages 1 to 14 and 14 to 19.

Route No. 4 A. *Saiadabad to Anar, vid* Shahr-i-Babek (continues from Anar to Yezd) by main Kerman Yezd road, 130 miles.

From Saiadabad 60 miles through the desert, and amongst foot hills to Shahr-i-Babek. There are a few tiny hamlets near the track, but no villages of any size. At Burj 40 miles (about) from Saiadabad there is an old watch tower, and a spring of good water, amongst tamarisk trees.

From here the road runs north-north-west to Javazin (7,190 feet) through Kadik (7,310 feet) and then north-north-east to Anar (4,600 feet) on the Yezd-Kerman road. There are only a few hamlets on the way between Shahr-i-Babek and Anar, and very few supplies are procurable, whilst water is scarce and the road is a very rough and bad one.

Kafilas bound to Yezd from Bander Abbas only take this road when the ways through Furg have been rendered very unsafe by bandits. It is not at all unusual for winter caravans between Bander Abbas and Yezd to take the Kerman winter road, and thus gain their objective by fetching a great curve. Much time is, of course, lost but an easier and safer road is gained, one comparatively free from very lofty passes, which are liable to be snowed up, and from robbers, and along which ample water and supplies are procurable.

Route No. 5. *Bander Abbas to Saiadabad and Bahramabad vid* the Tang-i-Zagh, as far as Sultanabad 130 miles (about), 9 stages to Sultanabad.

This road is more lacking in supplies and water than the other way to the table land *vid* the Tang-i-Zindan, lying as it does through salt-impregnated country. It, however, offers easier going for camels than the Zindan route, and is preferred especially during the rainy season, when the passage of the Tang-i-Zindan is accompanied with great risk of annihilation by floods.

For the first two stages, to Ginao the road is over rough, broken and stony ground, then after crossing a wide sandy strip, begins to climb into the table land. Sarzeh, the third stage 4 miles from Bander Abbas, is 1,000 feet above the sea. Here there is a small village where limited supplies are available, water is to be had from wells, and from a small spring. Though sweet and plentiful in winter and spring it becomes very brackish in summer and autumn. A sweet and perennial spring is found by the side of the road to the next stage, Zaratee, which lies in very hilly country. At Zaratee there are good date groves,—water, grazing, and fuel plentiful. Between Zaratee and Gharah (or Gura) the defiles of the Tang-i-Zagh and the Tang-i-Lambi have to be negotiated. Neither of these is as difficult or dangerous as the Zindan.

From Gharah onwards to Sadatabad, nearly 100 miles from Bander Abbas, and 2,360 feet above sea level, the road is fairly easy. This route between Bander Abbas and the table land, presents no features of any great difficulty. Water is the chief trouble for the whole country is saline to a degree.

Route No. 5 A. *Furg to Sadatabad*—60 miles, 3 stages.

Between Furg and Tashkat, the first stage, there are two roads, one of 20 miles, through the hills; the other, round the hills, between three and four miles longer, but very much easier. The village stands some three miles off the main road. Water and some supplies are procurable. The next 26 miles of road lies across a level plain, which is however a swamp in the rainy weather. The same holds good of the remainder of the road till Sadatabad is nearly reached. At both stages there are extensive date groves, but supplies are limited, and much of the water is saline and medicinal.

Route No. 6. *Bander Abbas to Yezd,—vid,* Hormuz, Furg, Katru, Robat and Muhammadabad, 466 miles, 29 stages.

6 A. *Bander Abbas to Yezd,—vid,* Hormuz Furg, Darab, Niriz, Herat-i-Kharan and Muhammadabad, 484 miles, 32 stages.

These two routes are about the same length, and are used indifferently according to the state of water, supplies, or the safety of the tracks. Both pass along the south-western side of the Central Kavir, and then cross it, turning northward from Niriz and Katru, places situated directly eastward of the salt lake of Niriz. Both tracks are exposed to the depredations of raiders from Fars and Laristan. When raiding is bad along these roads caravans take the easterly tracks, through Saiadabad, and even Kerman.

No. 6. From Bander Abbas to Hormuz, on the Bander Abbas-Lar-Shiraz, and the Bander Abbas-Lar-Bushire Routes, there are 6 stages, of 95 miles, the way lying through Chesterneh, Latitun, Birka Sultan, Birka Noh, and Pas Par Dalan. The country traversed by the road is rough and barren. At nearly all the stages there are caravan serais, but nearly all these serais are in ruins. Except for date groves, and some poor cultivation at the stages, and the rare villages, the land is desert with abruptly tilted limestone and shale hills, plains of gravel and sand, either absolutely barren or covered with sparse growths of dwarf tamarisk and *Kahur*

trees, or *Kanar* and other spring bush. Dry nallahs, sometimes of considerable depth, constantly intersect the track, and occasional streams, salt for the most part, are crossed. Fresh water springs are rare even in spring, and water is collected at the stages in cisterns fed either from brackish wells, or dependant on the rain for their filling. There is grazing for camels, but mules have to go on short commons, and supplies for men are scant.

The road works through the low Gatchin range, 6 miles from Bander Abbas, by the Tang-i-Chahkabak, and the road skirts the Ghisu range just before arriving at Birka Sultan. Hormuz (1,795 feet) is well among the mountains.

From Hormuz the distance is 371 miles, divided into 23 stages. Here the road begins a steady climb up the steps of the mountain wall to the plateau. At Hormuz, roads come in from Lar, from the west, and from Lingah, from the south. The latter is a very rough road of 8 stages.

The Hormuz-Furg road is bad between Kala Bikni and Fadumi, 2 stages, but fairly good elsewhere. Fresh water is to be had at most places along the road (5 stages) between Hormuz and Furg. Grazing too is fairly plentiful and supplies are procurable at most places.

At Furg the roads to Yezd bifurcate, the one *viâ* Niriz trending somewhat to the west, whilst the route, *viâ* Katru goes north-east before turning, northward and westward, and runs parallel to the Niriz route. From Furg (3,000 feet) it climbs to Kasillera Shun (4,320 feet) and Rosak (5,458 feet) and lies over mountains, being very bad and dangerous for laden animals. Near Tal Halal the Tang-i-Sang Atash *Kotal* (6,360 feet) is crossed. Except over this *Kotal* the road is good, and water and grazing are procurable, with, however, scanty supplies, as far as Beshna, on the edge of the desert. At Katru, the stage before Beshna, there is a large village, with gardens, where water is good and plentiful and supplies procurable in fair quantity. Here a road comes in from Niriz, 20 miles to the westward. Between Chah Nain and Robat (4 stages from Katru) the road is good and easy, except where it crosses the *Kavir*, where the going is heavy. Robat is almost in ruins, and all along these 4 stages the water is bad, grazing poor, and supplies lacking. At Robat a road runs to Shahr-i-Baluk on the east and to Dehbid and Murgak on the west. The elevation of Robat is 5,200 feet, and from here the road begins to climb to Khavri. The road is fairly good, however, and the quality of the water begins to improve. Beyond Khavri the road descends again into the desert and for 50 miles no water is procurable till Husainabad, the second stage from Yezd, is reached, nor are supplies procurable. The main Yezd-Kerman track is approached near Sir-i-Yezd, and the two tracks run close beside one another till they merge into one at Muhammadabad, at between 8 and 9 miles from Yezo.

From Bander Abbas to Darab there are 14 stages (222 miles), 6 stages (95 miles) to Hormuz, 5 stages (75 miles) from Hormuz to Furg, and 3 stages (52 miles) from Furg to Darab. The road between Bander Abbas and Furg is the same as in Route 6. The stage from Furg are Rosak, 14 miles, Deh Khair 28 miles, Darab 10 miles. In these 52 miles the road ascends 1,045 feet. It "switchbacks" over several spurs, but there is a longer road that is very level. Water and grazing are good at most times along these 3 stages; supplies are procurable. Darab like Kazaroon (for which see Detailed Itinerary of Mission) is situated in a fertile alevated plain. It has a temperate climate, and abounds in gardens, which are well watered and fruitful. 6 A.

From Darab, roads run to Lingah and Bander Abbas in the south, through Lar and Furg; to Shiraz, Jahrum, Firuzabad and Bushire on the west, to Yezd in the north, and to Saiadabad on the east.

The Yezd road for 28 miles, till it nearly reaches Chah Shur, the third stage out, is indifferent, and water, grazing, supplies are lacking. Near Chah Shur a plentiful supply of pure water is found. The road continues good, and water and grazing are to be had, though in places supplies are scanty, till this route meets that coming *viâ* Katru (Route No. 6) near Kalwand. The road from Kerman to Shiraz, *viâ* Shahr-i-Babek, crosses this road at Herat-i-Kharah, which is 8 stages and 110 miles from Darab.

Beyond Herat-i-Kharah the *Kavir* is crossed, and the going is heavy for nearly 4 miles. Nowhere along this road, however, are there any very heavy gradients. The road is undulating and often stony, but there are no trying kotals. From Darab (4,043 feet) the road climbs to 7,827 feet at Chashma Balist, and is bad, whilst in time of flood the Rud-i-nax-i-Rustim (so named from rocks under which it flows and which bear Sasanian sculptures like those at Puza and Shahpur) often overflows the roadway between these two stages, and obstructs traffic. This is the worst bit on this road. The track descends again gradually to Niriz (5,684 feet) and again rises to 7,500 feet and 7,260 feet in the next two stages, descending to 5,884 feet at Herat-i-Kharah, and again climbing to 7,560 feet at Chah Mil, the stage before Kalwand (5,410 feet), where it joins the Katru road. It is fairly easy all through however.

From Herat-i-Kharah it is 6 stages (113 miles) to Kalwand, and 4 stages (39 miles) from there on to Yezd.

Bander Abbas to Shiraz, viâ Hormuz and Lar. 312 miles, 18 stages. Route No. 7.

This route was much used at one time, but to-day it is very little used indeed, scarcely any caravans going beyond Lar, Shiraz, and other places to the west, find their outlet to the

sea at Bushire. Caravans using this road are also much exposed to robbery at the hands of the lawless inhabitants of the country through which it passes.

The stretch of 95 miles, 6 stages, between Bander Abbas and Hormuz has been outlined in Routes Nos. 6 and 6 A.

From Hormuz to Lar is 43 miles, the stage of Aliabad lying almost exactly halfway. The direction is generally west by a little north. The road is fair and water is got from cisterns. It is mostly brackish however, and some of the cisterns are infected with guinea worm. The going is mostly over clay and gravel, with, here and there, stretches of sand and stones and many shallow nallahs are crossed. About halfway between Hormuz and Aliabad, there is a small caravan serai, popularly known as Duzdgah, or "the place of thieves." Halfway between Aliabad and Lar is a serai called Basli Pariab, before reaching which a salt crusted ravine is crossed. The Lar valley is entered by a narrow gorge, which is nearly 12 miles from Lar, and is known as the Tang-i-nao. The Lar valley is stony and is not fertile, but there is a good deal of cultivation of an inferior sort. Lar itself is a town of 7,000 inhabitants and there are several villages in the neighbourhood. The bazaars are tolerably well supplied with necessaries. The drinking water, is nearly all, however obtained from "Abambars," covered tanks for catching surface water, and most, if not all, of these are infected with guinea worm, even as they are in Bander Abbas and Bushire. Camels are very abundant in the district.

From Lar to Shiraz there are 10 stages, the distance being 174 miles, the intermediate stages are:—Beris, 21 miles, road through fairly open country, over a few low passes across ridges, water from wells and springs. No supplies, country generally desert; Bararu, 18 miles, country still desert but more open, water from wells, no supplies; Juwun, 18 miles, road over fairly open country, still desert, but a little cultivation and some date groves, water from wells, a few supplies procurable. Road goes from here to Saiadabad *viâ* Darab; Chahdalkeh, 18 miles desert, road lies over rock ridges, with open and stony ground at intervals, water from wells, no supplies; Jahrum, 18 miles, road stony and passes over ridges, water from *kanat*, ordinary, supplies procurable; Khana Kahdan, 21 miles, road generally not difficult, through open country, country barren, no supplies, water from small stream; Kafri, 9 miles, country open, some cultivation in desert, scanty supplies, water from small stream, wells and *kanat*, Ismailabad; 18 miles, road open but rocky in places, camp in desert in gorge of hills, patches of cultivation here and there in desert; water from small streams and *kanats*, few supplies obtainable; Mazafri, 15 miles, country open generally and road good, some cultivation, water from stream, some supplies obtainable; Shiraz, 18 miles, country open and road good water good and supplies too.

7 A. *Lingah to Lar—viâ* Bastak, 138 miles, 9 stages.

The roads from Lingah to the interior are all difficult, and of late years the trade of the port has fallen off greatly till it is now almost entirely local.

The first stage out from Lingah is Champek 20½ miles, road fairly easy, through partly cultivated country water from tanks, scant supplies. From Champek the road ascends gradually, crossing many ravines, and is difficult for mules, to a pass 1,400 feet, and then desends, a stony pathway, to Sabai Kuh-ia-Hempeh, where there is a large rain water tank, 40 feet in diameter and 33 feet in depth. A difficult road then leads down to a salt river which is followed and crossed several times. This road would be impracticable in flood time. Then another climb and another descent, several ravines being crossed, till 21¾ miles brings the traveller to Din, where there are no supplies, and where water is got from pools in the ravine. Another 17 miles, through hilly and broken country, varied with stretches of open going over gravel, crossing rockridges and saltstreams, until Kukhird, which is surrounded by much cultivation, is reached. Here water of good quality can be got from wells and a *kanat*, and there is grazing and fire wood, but no supplies are available. Bastak, 9¾ miles off, is the next stage, reached by a stony road first across rock-strewn plains, and afterwards over nallahs and rockridges. Bastak is a small town of 4,000 to 5,000 inhabitants, situated, at an elevation of 1,560 feet in a small plain. There are no traders; supplies are scanty; water plantiful from wells 20′ to 30′ deep, sunk in gravelly soil, and there is good camel grazing. Mullah Wardi (1,025 feet), 14¼ miles, is the next stage. The road is bad and stony between the places. At Mullah Wardi there is a large date grove. Water is scarce, from a well; no supplies. There is a good level road of 8¼ miles, through open country to Tuderu, the next stage. Water from wells and tank, supplies scarce. From here an ascent of 7½ miles takes the road over the watershed separating Lar and Bastak districts. The descent to Geshun, the next stage, is by a bad road through desolate mountainous country. At Geshun no village or supplies, a few palms and a spring of brackish water. Hormuz lies 12 miles from here, the road running over stony ground and across numerous nallahs. Halfway the salt Dundil-rud is crossed. It is impassable in rains.

Route No. 8. *Bandar Abbas to Bushire,—viâ* Hormuz and Lar—438½ miles, 30 stages.

This road is now never used, except over short stretches, as between Bander Abbas and Lar (*vide* Routes 6 and 7) and between the various rare townlets and villages that lie along its course. It is a fairly difficult road; very difficult in parts, leading through most inhospitable country, where stretches of cultivation, the fertile coastal plains behind Bushire being left behind are few and far between. The tract across which the road lies is murderously hot in summer, and sweet water and supplies are both reported to be very scarce

Since piracy has been suppressed all through trade is sea-borne. The stages from Bushire are:—

1. Bushire to Gurak	14 miles	2·4 furlongs.
2. Gurak to Ahram	14 „	7·2 „
3. Ahram to Khormuj	18 „	7 „
4. Khormuj to Lava	12 „	3 „
5. Lava to Sana	10 „	1·6 „
6. Sana to Shumba	11 „	1 „
7. Shumba to Baghan	18 „	1·6 „
8. Baghan to Riz	19 „	1·2 „
9. Riz to camp on west bank of river Riz	13 „	1 „
10. Camp to Jam	12 „	3 „
11. Jam to Hanut river	11 „	1 „
12. Hanut river to Kala Sageh	11 „	6 „
13. Kala Sageh to Behristan	10 „	6 „
14. Behristan to Wardawan	14 „	5 „
15. Wardawan to Alamardasht	10 „	7 „
16. Alamardasht to Zangur Mameh	11 „	4·6 „
17. Zangur Mameh to Haftawan	13 „	0 „
18. Haftawan to Marz	11 „	6 „
19. Marz to Gazdun	18 „	4·3 „
20. Gazdun to Avaz	17 „	3·7 „
21. Avaz to Girash	11 „	4·2 „
22. Girash to Lar	13 „	4·6 „
23. Lar to Aliabad	21 „	0 „
24. Aliabad to Hormuz	22 „	1 „
25. Hormuz to Pas Par Dalan	17 „	7 „
26. Pas Par Dalan to Birka Noh	15 „	3 „
27. Birka Noh to Birka Sultan	14 „	1 „
28. Birka Sultan to Latitun	16 „	5 „
29. Latitun to Chesterneh	14 „	5 „
30. Chesterneh to Fander Abbas	15 „	4 „

Saiadabad to Kerman—viâ Sadatabad, Mashish and Bagin, 127 miles, 5 stages. Route No. 9 A.

The stages are:—Saiadabad to Sadatabad, 16 miles; Sadatabad to Khan-i-Surkh, 29 miles; Khan-i-Surkh to Mashish, 31 miles; Mashish to Bagin, 30 miles; Bagin to Kerman, 21 miles.

The first two marches lead into the mountains, which are entered in the second march. Saiadabad is 3,370 feet above sea level and Khan-i-Surkh 8,120. At 22 miles beyond Sadatabad the pass known as the Gudar-i-kuh-i-Surkh (8,540 feet) is crossed. The approach is over a fair track, and the descent is easy, amongst gently sloping hills, to the serai. No inhabitants or supplies. Water, grazing and fuel fairly plentiful. To Mashish (6,470 feet) the road descends gradually, first amongst hills and then over a wide plain. A few hamlets lie close to the road, and there is a cluster of villages at Mashish; water and all supplies plentiful. Road good. Descent continued to Bagin and the Kerman plain. Several villages near road, which continues good, once the Godar-i-God-i-Dokhtar is crossed. Water and supplies sufficient. Easy march from Bagin to Kerman.

Kerman can be reached by a somewhat shorter road *viâ* Akbarabad instead of Bagin, but serai and supplies at Bagin better than at Akbarabad.

Kerman to Neh—viâ Khabis 238½ miles, 12 stages. Route No. 9.

Good road, 21 miles, to Darakht Anjoon, where good water and grazing and limited supplies available. After this bad road over 2 steep *kotals*, impossible for camels, the worst being the Anjir Pass, 25 miles to Faizabad, and 10 miles down a gentle slope beyond to Khabir, where water and grazing are good and plentiful, and ample supplies available for caravans. Great date and henna centre (see Khabis, in Trading Centres.)

To Deh-i-Saif is 9½ miles, good going, road still in oasis, supplies procurable, water plentiful from spring. Here massacks on water camels ought to be filled, after careful inspection, for desert march. To Gudar-i-Barut, also called Gudar Bint, and Shor Rud is 28 miles level over desert. A stream of slighly brackish water is crossed 3 miles from Deh-i-Saif. This is the last drinkable water procurable, except immediately after rain, for 5 days, and perhaps even till Neh is reached. Here fire wood ought also to be collected. At Shor Rud the river is brine, and no fuel or vegetation of any description exists.

On the road to Kalgosha, 26¾ miles, a *kavir* is crossed. The going is extremely bad. Last 15 miles over level sand and gravel. No water, no vegetation. The 49 miles to Pushta-i-Panj Farsakh lie over sand and gravel, without sign of water or vegetation. Deh-i-Salm, a tiny hamlet in the desert, with a date plantation, is reached 22½ miles further on. No water or vegetation on the way. At Deh-i-Salm supplies can sometimes be had in small quantity. Brackish water from *kanat*. An *abambar* here which sometimes has better fresh water.

At 10½ miles farther on there are two wells in the desert; they are known as Gahe Chahak. The place is uninhabited. The water in the wells is reported good, but they have been known to dry up, a good road of 17¼ miles leads over a low, rocky range from here to Chah-i-Turk. Here there are two wells but no habitations. Neh is distant 19 miles from this place, the road being good. Nasratabad (Seistan) is distant 83 miles (4 stages) from Neh, and the road is not altogether destitute of water and supplies.

Route No. 10. *Khabis to Tehrud—vid* Sok (7,500 feet) 78 miles—three stages—see detailed Itinerary.

Route No. 11. Bam to Nasratabad (Ispi) on road to Seistan, 144 miles—six stages.

Leaving Bam and going east by south over firm gravel ground, passing by many villages and date groves, Allahabad is reached at 20 miles, Nahimabad is 16 miles east of this place, the road still lying through well watered, fertile and populous country, studded with forts and farms, abounding in jungle and grazing. The splendid white cone of the Kuh-i-Bagman forms a conspicuous object in the landscape. From Nahimabad, a large village, the road leads east-north-east 14 miles to Tun-i-Reg "hillocks of sand," which is the last camping ground before the desert that stretches away to Seistan is entered. A desert march of 22 miles to Shur gaz, one of 35 to Gurg, and one of 37 to Nasratabad, brings the caravan to a place where, till it resumes its march to Seistan or to Neh. It is comparatively safe from robbers, and from fears of death from thirst. At Shurgaz and Gurg, halting places in the desert, bad and salt water is found at a depth of 5 feet. The whole desert is impregnated with salt and the march to beyond Nasratabad is through a region of utter desolation.

The road from Nasratabad (Ispi) to Nasratabad (Seistan) has been sketched in Route No. 1.

Route No. 12. *Kerman to Meshed—vid* Rawar, Naibaud, Tun and Turbat-i-Haidari.

650 miles (about), 50 stages.

The road is across desert nearly the whole way, the Dasht-i-Kavir, the great salt swamp of the northern desert being crossed between Darband and Tun.

Route No. 13 A. *Kerman to Yezd—vid* Bahramabad. Postal and main caravan route, along telegraph line, 337 miles, 12 stages.

Vide detailed Itinerary of Mission.

Route No. 13 A. B. *Bahramabad to Shahrud—vid* Anar and Bafk, 490 miles (about) 30 stages.

After leaving Bafk the road is across the desert of the Dasht-i-Kavir till Turut is reached, 80 miles from Shahrud.

Route No. 13 B. *Chahbar to Kerman—vid* Bampur and Bam.—542 miles, 32 stages.

Chahbar harbour, on the Mekrani coast, does not catch the monsoon, and, affording safe anchorage, is very popular with native craft, which do a lot of the local and Gulf carrying trade. There is an excellent supply of water at the Telegraph station, where it is conveyed from a pump well situated at some little distance from the station. Forage and supplies are lacking at Chahbar, but can be collected without any great difficulty; camels are very abundant in the hinterland, though, owing to the lack of grazing at Chahbar itself they have to be brought there from one or two days' march off. There are several caravan routes leading north-west and east from Chahbar, and several other routes converge at Geh and Bampur on the long Chahbar-Bampur-Bam-Kerman route.

There are 14 stages (188 miles) between Chahbar and Bampur, 12 stages (215 miles), between Bampur and Bam, and 6 stages (139 miles) by the Naibid Post and Telegraph route, between Bam and Kerman, a total of 32 stages and 542 miles between the chief Mekran port and Kerman.

The first two marches (25 miles) out of Chahbar are through sandy and broken country and not far from the sea. The ascent to the highland begins at Peshmont, the third stage, 830 feet above sea level. The track is through desolate country, steadily rising, and lies up and across the dry beds of many rivers which are peculiarly liable to sudden and violent floods, often caused by storms which take place amongst the treeless mountains miles away from the spot where the flood is encountered. Camps ought never to be pitched in the bed of a river, for a flood may come in the middle of a rainless night, after a succession of rainless days and destroy the sleeping party.

The first four marches, to Ziarat, 59¼ miles from Chahbar, are through country that is practically desert. The going is rough, over hills that increase in number and size as the interior is approached. Water can, however, be procured by digging, the water being fairly abundant and good, 4 to 5 feet below the surface. The Geh river is met at Ziarat. Part of the next march is along the river bed, and would be difficult, if not impossible, in the rains. The halting place is at the small hamlet of Navkinja. Geh, 10½ miles away, is reached next, it is situated in a splendid date grove, at the junction of the Gung and Kishi streams in the fork of the river. There are roads (camel tracks) from Geh to Binth, Fanooch, Champ, and Kasar Kand; from Geh (1,476 feet) the road climbs steadily to Pip (3,295 feet) and runs through country where, if the going is rough, small villages and patches of cultivation, as well as date groves, are met with at frequent intervals. The track becomes very bad and difficult as it approaches Serha, the stage before Pip, where the source of the river of that name is. The watershed (3,648 feet) is crossed before Pip is reached. At Pip, which is the chief village of Lashar, and is 138¼ miles distant from Chahbar, the camping grounds and water are excellent, and supplies are plentiful. Camel tracks run from here east to Champ and west to Muskhutan, the road descends steadily from here to Bampur, 58¼ miles. There is a desert march of 20 miles between Ispaka, the first stage after Pip, and Geshkoh. The crossing of the Bampur River is attended with considerable danger as the river is full of quicksands. Bampur is a largish place, but it is so hot and feverish that the seat of Government has been removed to Pahraj.

The first two marches, of 45½ miles, out of Bampur is through cultivated country, where grazing and good water are to be had. Beyond Chil Sardar the country becomes desert. The country between 70 and 80 miles from Bampur, though still desert is liable to be flooded at times, and Sykes reports having marched through 2 miles of water on the road to Chilhadir, and said that then, March 1894, the country was like a lake. Much grassy country, covered with flocks belonging to the nomads in autumn, winter and spring, is traversed and several low ridges, and nallahs are crossed between Dar-i-Keshkin and Zahu, 110¼ miles from Bampur, and 3020 feet above the sea), where the Dasht-i-Tagaz, a volcanic plain, is entered. Here the water becomes brackish, though sweet water is got in several places by digging a few feet below the surface. This volcanic plain dips to the north and west, and the road is down the incline to Gehgan, 127¼ miles (2,750 feet).

Route No. 13 B. A. Alternative.

The alternative route between Bampur and Geh runs *viâ* Basman. It consists of 8 stages of 132 miles. The road is reported to be generally better than the route just noted, and supplies are generally procurable in fair quantity. The stages are:—Bampur to Dabirgan 15, Manderan 16, Basman 15, Pansara 13, Hanjira 32, Chah Gaz 9, Kasubran 24, Gehgan 8 miles.

Route No. 13 B. (Resumed).

From Gehgan the road lies across a desert, first over volcanic undulations and then a plain, crossing the Konamai river, to Chah-i-Malik, where grazing and wood are abundant, and brackish water can be got by digging in the river bed. From here it is 11¾ miles to Rigan (*vide* route No. 1).

The stages from Rigan to Bam usually followed are:—to Burj-i-Egha Muhammad 16 miles, Jamali 17, Bam 22¾. The road lies in somewhat rough ground where cultivation is frequent.

There is an alternative route of 62 miles from Rigan to Bam *viâ* Nahimabad and Allahabad.

Between Bam and Kerman the stages are:—Darzin 18 miles, Tarood (Khan-i-Khatoon) 30, Naibid 27, Zain-ul-Abad 24, Mapun 16, Kerman 24.

For description—*vide* Detailed Itinerary of Mission.

Route No. 13 B. C.

Bampur to Seistan.—viâ Washt, Ladis and Kuh-i-Malik Siah (Robat) 341 miles—21 stages.

There are 5 stages (65 miles) to Karwandar. Camel forage, fuel and water are procurable at all stages, and the road is easy, passing through Paraj at the first stage.

From Karwandar there are 2 stages to Washt (Kwash) 39½ miles. The road is not good, but is practicable for pack animals, brackish water is to be had at the stages all the year round, and sweet water for some time after the spring and winter rains. Camel grazing is abundant.

There are 4 stages, (52½ miles) between Washt and Ladis. On the way to Rudgaz (13½ miles), the first stage, 2 low ranges of hills are crossed the next march 13½ miles, to Sangun, is over broken ground along the eastern leave of the Kuh-i-Taftan. Several water courses and ravines are crossed before the Kotai river is forded. There is ample and good water and grazing here. Two stages, 25½ miles more bring the traveller, through rough country, but where water is to be found, to Ladis. At Ladis there is unlimited and good water, grazing and wood are to be had in quantity and supplies are procurable, the country is full of sheep.

From Ladis to Nasratabad (Seistan) the distance is 184 miles, divided into 10 stages. These are:—Daribiastan 16½, Bed Kotal 11¼, Chamag 28¼, Malikaf 18, Hurmak 15, Nawar 23, Haozdar 26, Sehkuha 23, Chilling 10, Nasratabad 13 miles.

The road is over difficult, hilly country, but is itself not very bad. Water is procurable at most of the stages and can be got by digging, where it is not to be found on the surface. In some years, however, stretches of this road are almost waterless. Grazing is plentiful for camels everywhere. The going, after Seistan is entered, becomes flat, but, the country being so cut up by irrigation ditches, is not easy.

Route No. 13 B. B.

Bampur to Jalk—(for Nushki) 197¼ miles, 14 stages.

The track for over 5 stages, 71 miles, is in the Bampur river basin, and good water, grazing and fuel are obtainable, whilst villages and cultivation are frequent and supplies are sufficient in ordinary seasons. Road affords good going except in wet weather. Two and half miles from Cheb, the fifth stage, the watershed between the Bampur and Mashkid rivers is reached, and the descent begins to the Magas side. Cheb 4,175 feet, Magas 3,930 feet. At Magas, roads meet from Bampur, Riudigan, Seistan (*viâ* Sarhad) Khazan (*viâ* Dizak) Gwadar and Sarbaz. Supplies are here plentiful, water and grazing abundant. In the next stage, of 15½ miles to Khaur Chahrukan (4,060 feet) a difficult pass has to be crossed. Beyond this stage a good road, with water, grazing and supplies to Kal-i-Baluch, at miles 175¼. Here grazing, but no supplies, and scanty water. At Laji, 10 miles off, the next stage, sheep, goats, dates and a little corn and rice are obtainable, whilst water and grazing are good. From here 12 miles over broken and desert country to Jalk, where supplies are limited and the camping ground bad. The place is very unhealthy.

Route No. 14.

Bushire to Yezd—viâ Shiraz and Abargu—430 miles, 22 stages. A difficult road, with 6 high passes upon it. See detailed Itinerary of Mission.

Bushire—Shiraz.—Alternative Routes *viâ* (1) Firuzabad, (2) Jarah, Jeriah or Jerreh.

There are, besides the much frequented Post Road over the Kotals, two other routes between Bushire and Shiraz, both of which are, so far as steep passes are concerned, easier than the Post Road, but which, for a variety of reasons, the chief of which are the fear of robbery and the scarcity, over several long stages, of water, are unused. These routes are one *viâ* Firuzabad, and one *viâ* Jarah, which is also known as Jerreh and Jeriah. These

routes bifurcate at Kahina, which is about 50 miles east of Bushire, the road *viâ* Jarah going generally north-eastwards, and the road *viâ* Firuzabad trending to the east before bending northwards from Firuzabad to Shiraz.

The stages are :—

Bushire—Gurak, 14 miles across the Mashela, or swamp.

Gurak—Ahram, 15 miles.

Ahram—Kahina 20 miles by the narrow and difficult Tang-i-Bahush. There is an alternative road between Ahram and Kahina. This is the way by which in 1857 the Persians brought wheeled artillery to the coast. It lies :—Ahram—Khormuj 14 miles, Khormaj-Lava 13, Tang-i-Sehdar 12, Kahina 24 miles.

From Kahina, the roads are :—

(*1*) *Viâ Firuzabad.*—

Kahina—Boshakun, 16 miles } No water except after rains in March, and
Boshakun—Farashband, 29 miles } then brackish.

Farashband—Firuzabad, 40 miles. After 14 miles a rocky and difficult climb of about 7 miles across a ridge; road, however, not impossible for wheels.

At and after Firuzabad no difficulty regarding water, supplies limited.

Firuzabad—Khajai, 16 miles.

Khajai—Kavar Bridge (over Kara Agatch) 19 miles.

Kavar—Baba Haji, 16 miles.

Baba Haji—Shiraz.

(*2*) *Viâ Jarah.*—

Kalima—Dehrud, 20 miles, short steep Kotal ascended.

Dehrud—Husainabad, 24 miles, a shore steep and very bad Kotal at beginning and an easy Kotal at end of march.

Husainabad—Jarah, 12 miles.

Jarah—Kala Mosko, 18 miles, Jarah river to ford, difficult at any season. Dar-i-Darya Kotal at 12 miles, difficult and steep, summit reached at 14 miles.

Kala Mosko—Chinar Fariah, 26 miles.

Chinar—Fariah—Shiraz, 28 miles.

Route No. 15. *Yezd to Ispahan—viâ* Kupha—201 miles, 10 stages.

The stages, from Ispahan, are Gulmabad 14 miles, Sagzi 15 miles, Kupha 21 miles, (here telegraph station) Laghirak 30 miles, Bambiz 16 miles, Nao Gumbaz 12 miles, Akola 26 miles, Maihut 31 miles, Himatabad 16 miles, Yezd 20 miles.

The road from Ispahan to Yezd consists of three natural diversions :—First, 50 miles nearly, east, over the flat Ispahan plain, second 30 miles eastward, over hilly and broken ground, third 120 miles south-easterly over an extension of the great plain of Khorasan and the Lut. The track is mostly through desert land, in which are villages and towns set in oases. Supplies and water are procurable at all stages.

Route No. 16. *Ispahan to Shiraz,* by Post Road—312 miles, 20 stages.

The stages to Dehbid telegraph station are :—Mayar 30 miles, Kumeshah (telegraph station) 20 miles, Maksudhegi 16 miles, Yazdikhast 24 miles, Shulgistan 24 miles, Abadeh (telegraph station) miles, Surmek 16 miles, Khan-i-Kora 24 miles, Deh Bid (telegraph station) 18. For remaining stages see detailed Itinerary.

The road is not an easy one, and the Kolikush Pass near Deh Bid is dangerous in winter. Water is procurable at all stages, though sometimes in limited quantities. The same remark holds true of grazing and supplies.

Desert Route, Khabis to Bam—viâ Kashit.

There is a road from Khabis to Bam from the east, along the edge of the desert, and the foot of the mountains. In January 1905, this road was reported impracticable as no water or supplies of any kind could be had along its whole length.

APPENDIX D.

Cost and time of transport and keep of animals.

Route.	Means of transport.	Approximate distance—miles.	Rates.	Time in days.	Remarks.
		Routes—	*Exterior—Northern and Western.*		
Batoum-London	Steamer	...	£1·95 per ton of 2,240 lbs.	25	
Batoum-Constantinople	,,	...	£1·40 per ton of 2,240 lbs.	7	
Batoum-Calcutta	,,	...	R28 per ton of 50 cubic feet	35	
Batoum-Erivan	Rail	...	£4·30 per ton of 2,240 lbs.	7	
Batoum-Tabriz	Camel, rail, and wagon	...	£ 9·33 per ton of 2,240 lbs.	24	Tea freights R1·45 to R2 per pound.
Batoum-Hong Kong	Steamer	...	£2·25 per ton measure	55	
London-Trebizond	,,	...	£1·95 per ton of 2,240 lbs.	25	
Moscow-Erivan	Rail	...	£3·60 per ton of 2,240 lbs.	...	
Moscow-Astara (Caspian)	Rail, steamer	...	£7·75 per ton of 2,240 lbs. (*vid* Poti)	25 by rail	Also to Bakou—*vid* (*i*) Belazara cost £3·41 per ton. (*ii*) Yaroslav (Volga) cost £4·12 per ton, time 40 days. (*iii*) Nijni cost £4·63 per ton.
Moscow-Resht-Enzelli	Rail, steamer	...	Average £6·12 per ton of 2,240 lbs.	25 by rail	Freight 19 per cent. lower than average in summer; 25 per cent. above average in winter.
Moscow-Ashkabad	Rail	...	£3·46 per ton of 2,240 lbs.	35	*Vid* Petrovsk.
Ditto	River and rail	...	£5·62 do. do. do.	60	In Volga season, *vid* Nijni.
Nijni-Astara	Rail and steamer	...	£2 do. do. do.	...	
Trebizond-Meshed	Camels, mules.	1,420	Krs. 629 per kharvar of 650 lbs.	105 to 115	*Vid* Tabriz and Tehran.
		Routes—	*Southern and Eastern—Exterior.*		
Bombay and Gulf Ports	Steamer	...	R10 per 40 cubic feet (15 cwt.), tea 8 cwt	5 to 15	R10 per ton measure. Skin and leather R25. Dates in baskets R12. Rosewater in cases, R1 each. Carboys 8 annas each. Horses R35.
Manchester-London Gulf Ports	,,	...	£1·75 per ton measurement, outward	35	
			£1·35 to £1·5 per ton measurement, homeward	30 to 40	
Odessa-Gulf Ports	,,	...	£1·65 per ton of 2,240 lbs.	30 to 40	Bi-monthly steamers, subsidised by the Russian Government at £4,000 a trip.
Quetta-Birjand	Camels	773	R102·8 per maund. Krs. 250 per kharvar	90	*Vid* Nushki-Seistan.
Quetta-Meshed	,,	1,050	Krs. 350 per kharvar (650 lbs.)	150	
Muhammerah-Ahwaz	Steamer	...	£2·90 per ton of 2,240 lbs.	2	Fortnightly steamer.
Basrah-Bagdad	,,	...	£2·46 per ton of 2,240 lbs. on London cargo	40	Owing to delays at Basrah. Rate on general London cargo £1·35 per ton.
			£2 per ton of 2,240 lbs. on Bombay cargo		
Bagdad-Kirmanshah	Mule [May to September by camel]	220	Krs. 117 per kharvar (650 lbs.)	15 to 20	
Bagdad-Hamadan	Mule, camel		Krs. 170 per kharvar (650 lbs.)	25	
Bagdad-Meshed	Mules and camels	1,070	Krs. 300 to krs. 350 per kharvar (650 lbs.)	120 to 150	Mules to Tehran. Thence camels to Meshed.
			Routes—Interior.		
Bander Abbas-Meshed	Camels or donkeys	970	Krs. 410 § per kharvar (650 lbs.)	110*	* (Consular reports, 1902, give 30 days.) § Consular reports, 1902, give krs. 345. *Vid* Kerman, Naiband-Tud.
Bander Abbas-Meshed	Camels	1,020	Krs. 280 to 420 per kharvar (650 lbs.)	105 to 150	*Vid* Yezd-Tabas.
Bander Abbas-Seistan	,,	550	Krs. 150 per kharvar (650 lbs.)	40 to 60	*Vid* Rigan.
Bander Abbas-Rafsinjan	Camels and donkeys	380	Krs. 65 to 120	25 to 40	
Rafsinjan-Shahrud	Camels	480	Krs. 130 to 200 per kharvar (650 lbs.)	46	
Bander Abbas-Kerman	Camels and donkeys	277 *vid* Baft, 377 *vid* Saiadabad,	Krs. 190 † per kharvar (650 lbs.)	30 ‡	† Consular reports for 1901 give rate as krs. 82 to krs. 164. ‡ Consular reports for 1901 give 25 days instead of 30 days.
Bander Abbas-Yezd	Camels and donkeys	520	Krs. 215 to 320 do. do.	40 to 45	Donkeys used only for transport of goods of little value and not liable to damage.
Bushire-Shiraz	Mule and donkey	176	Krs. 90 do. do.	12 to 25, 30 in grazing season to 50.	Goods are taken up in lots, not all at once, by the mule contractor charvaidar, who undertakes to deliver within a certain period. Quick transport, 12 days, must be paid for at special rates. In the spring, the grazing season, the term may extend to 50 days. From Shiraz to Bushire the time is generally one-third shorter, and the cost half, of what it is from Bhushire to Shiraz.

Cost and time of transport and keep of animals—contd.

Route.	Means of transport.	Approximate distance—miles.	Rates.	Time in days.	Remarks.
Ahwaz-Ispahan	Mule and donkey	277	Krs. 167per kharvar (650 lbs.)	26 to 30	This route, by the Lynch Road, is gradually being more used. There is, however, a great lack of caravan serais upon the road.
Ahwaz Tramway	.....	14	Krs. 3 per ton of 2,240 lbs.	...	
Shiraz-Ispahan	Camel, mule, donkey	310	Krs. 85 per kharvar of 650 lbs.	20	
Yezd-Ispahan	Mule, camel	180	Krs. 40 to 80	8 to 14	From Ispahan to Yezd $\frac{1}{10}$ lower.
Yezd-Shiraz	,,	260	Krs. 50 to 80 to, and 100 to 140 from per kharvar	12 to 22	Shiraz-Yezd is 18 to 24 days.
Yezd-Bushire	Mule	425	Krs. 80 to 100 to (down), and 200 to 320 from (up), per kharvar	20 to 80	
Yezd-Kerman	Camels	200	Krs. 50 to 70 per kharvar of 650 lbs.	15 to 20	
Yezd-Tehran	,,	360	Krs. 100 to 150 per kharvar of 650 lbs.	25 to 40	Rates from Tehran to Yezd 25 per cent. cheaper than from Yezd to Tehran.
Yezd-Kashan	,,	230	Krs. 50 to 80 per kharvar of 650 lbs.	15 to 30	Rates from Kashan to Yezd 40 to 60.
Yezd-Tabriz	,,	650 (say)	Krs. 200 to 250 to, and 150 to 200 from, per kharvar	50 to 80	
Yezd-Resht-Enzelli	Camels, wagon	500 (say)	Krs. 200 to 250 per kharvar of 650 lbs.	45 to 45	Rates same both ways. On the Resht carriage road a toll of krs. 12 is levied on each camel.
Yezd-Meshed	Camels	500 (say)	Krs. 150 to 200 per kharvar	45 to 50	50 days by camel.
Ditto	Mules	500 (say)	Krs. 250 to 300 per kharvar	25 to 30 30 days by mules.	
Yezd-Birjand	Camels	300	Krs. 75 to 90 per kharvar	30	
Yezd-Hamadan	,,	300	Krs. 125 to 160 (Yezd to Hamadan)	30 to 40	Hamadan to Yezd, krs. 105 to 140.
Yezd-Kirmanshah	,,	400	Krs. 105 to 140, Kirmanshah-Yezd Krs. 125 to 130 (Yezd to Kirmanshah)	35 to 45 35 to 45	
Yezd-Bander Abbas	Camels, donkey	520	Krs. 200 to 360 per kharvar	35 to 45	

Notes.—The rates quoted above are only average approximations, and are rising (January 1905). Transport rates are liable to very great and sudden fluctuations, and rise sometimes to double the amounts here shown as *minimum and maximum averages*. Rates for export and rates for caravans moving southward are as a rule cheaper than for imports, or for northern bound transports.

The time occupied on the road by mules and camels also varies much according to the season of the year, being considerably longer in the late spring and early summer, the grazing season—which generally lasts about three months,—than at other times, when the green grass and the crops have vanished.

During the grazing season mules and camels get no other food. Short stages and long halts are made, in order to permit of the beasts grazing their fill.

The keep of a mule in work is from krs. 1 to 2 per day, according to locality, whilst the keep of a donkey will be half, and the keep of a camel about a third, of that of a mule. The mule feed will average 20 lbs. of straw and 10 lbs. of barley a day. A donkey will get 6 lbs. barley, and what he can pick up; camels are turned out to graze, and are given about 5 lbs. of barley meal.

There is as a rule one driver to every 5 mules, and 1 leader to each string of 7 camels.

The wages of muleteers is about 10 to 15 krans a month, with rations. The camel driver *gets roughly about double*.

A mule will last from 10 years to (say) 17 if well treated, at caravan work, though the Kotals on the Bushire Road kill pack animals off in from two to four or five years. A good camel will last 15 years in work. Wet weather, however, affects camels very badly, and the camel too is a beast liable in peculiar degree to accidents and sickness.

There are only 2 roads in Persia, the Resht-Tehran and Ashkabad-Meshed, over which merchandise is transported by wagon and in the whole country there are only 5 made roads.

Everywhere the ordinary means of transport are camel, mule, and donkey caravans.

The donkey is used only for the carriage of goods of small value, not liable to be easily damaged, and which can be split up conveniently into small loads. The donkey carries too small a load, and is not big enough to keep valuable merchandise clear of water and mud. For the carriage of country produce down to the ports, and for the transport of iron bars, lead and tin ingots, copper sheets, etc., the donkey is in great request, for he costs half of what a mule does, and *moves twice as fast as a camel*.

The donkey is most used on the Bander Abbas routes.

Mules are much used, and are to be got everywhere except on the desert tracks to Seistan, Baluchistan, and Southern Khorasan.

The camel is however, most commonly employed as a beast of burden, for the camel caravan forms the best and cheapest means of transport. The camel competes with success against wagons on the Resht, Ashkabad, and Erivan roads. The only road on which they cannot work, except under the greatest difficulties, is the Bushire-Shiraz track. The advantage of camels is that they move steadily, if slowly, do not crush, jostle, and fight, and do not stampede easily, whilst they keep their loads well clear of water and mud, and kneel to load and unload. They are therefore preferred for the carriage of delicate and expensive merchandise. Transport by camel is far less hurtful to merchandise than by the Persian wagon.

The loads on all pack animals being in two packages of about equal weight slung on the pack saddle, no package ought to weigh more than half a load.

The following are fair weights for bales:—

Camel.	*Mule.*	*Donkey.*
250 to 300 lbs. Majority 287 lbs.	175 to 200 lbs. Majority about 182 lbs.	65 to 82 lbs.

Packages destined for the Ahwaz-Ispahan range ought to weigh 10 to 15 per cent. less.

Cases ought to weigh less, by 10 to 15 per cent. than bales, and ought for preference to be oblong in form. The rates charged for the carriage of cases are usually 15 to 20 per cent. higher than those charged for the carriage of bales. Bales tire the pack animal far less than do cases, for they cling to the saddle, and get less swing on them during movement. They are, too, more easily handled and are convenient in shape. Very bulky or heavy goods pay special rates, and are carried mostly slung on poles, between two animals harnessed fore and aft.

The packing of all merchandise intended for the interior of Persia ought to be of a kind to endure unavoidable rough handling and to ensure adequate protection against weeks, and often months, of exposure to the blazing sun, to soaking dews, and in autumn, winter, and spring to heavy rain, snow, and intense frost.

APPENDIX E.

Translation of Blank Contract, used in Sales.

*Dated*_____

The sum of Krans_____for_____Company's property through_____ is due by me, per religious agreement and promise to pay the amount due after_____, months, against which I receive back my document. I agree to pay without any excuse, as such is against the law. It is agreed that discount shall be reckoned after_____days, at the customary rate.

APPENDIX F.

ITINERARY.

COMMERCIAL MISSION TO PERSIA.

November 1904—May 1905.

Naiband to Baghu 14 miles—14 miles.

Leaving the Consulate at Naiband (three miles from Bander Abbas) the road goes east for two miles, and then turns east by north east. Road heavy sand, one or two groups of huts on left, date groves visible to east towards Minab. At seven miles a village to right of road, and two wells of brackish water. One mile farther another village. Here road becomes harder, and somewhat stony, gradient rising. Road trends more towards skirt of mountain range. At 12 miles a tree, and a well of water, brackish. At Baghu a tiny village of reed and palm leaf huts, built round crater-like valley; date groves and irrigation cut. Water salt. Scarcely any supplies of fuel. Supply of fairish water four miles from Baghu.

Baghu to Zirat 22 miles—36 miles.

A very bad road, across the boulder-strewn foot-slopes of the mountain chain. Scarcely possible to move beyond a walk. At eight miles hilliness of the country becomes more pronounced and road winds round bare bluffs, then drops, by a steep worn zig-zag into a ravine at 12 miles. Here a couple of huts and a little cultivation, with a clump of date palms. A spring of sweet water in ravine. Road then climbs out of ravine over bluffs, and at 16 miles large village of Kilakazi, with cultivation and date groves, reached. At 18 miles a date grove and irrigation channel. Road becomes more cut up by beds of mountain torrents. At 22 miles village of Ziarat, with wide-spreading date groves, and considerable cultivation. Fuel is fairly plentiful and so is grazing. Other supplies short. Water at village brackish. Good sweet water got from spring six miles north-east. Camping ground good.

Ziarat to Kushkuh 14 miles—50 miles.

Road, still bad, runs east by north-east along the foot of the high and precipitous Kuh-i-Kushkuh, at four miles passes through a *hamun*, or salt *jhil*, ground very slippery. At eight miles some springs, and a shrine. After this there is a short steep ascent through cultivated land and date groves till Kushkuh is reached at the fourteenth mile. The village consists of flat-roofed huts, built in tiers, on two large hillocks at the foot of the precipice. Here caravans stop to take in supplies for the journey through the Tang-i-Zindan. Supplies and forage fair. Fuel fair. Water slightly brackish but plentiful. Extensive date groves.

Kushkuh to Dahana-i-Tang 15 miles—65 miles.

Going extremely bad. Road north-east, along the foot slopes, and up the bed of the Zindan Rud for about five miles, then turns north into the hills along the river bed. The camping ground at the Dahana-i-Tang (mouth of the narrow) is reached at the fifteenth mile. A good spring of sweet water above camp. Water in river salt. Camping ground on two little flat spots about 200 feet above river bed. No supplies forage or fuel. A little grazing for camels and mules.

Dahana-i-Tang to Sir-i-Sikh 24 miles—89 miles.

The route lies along the bed of the Canon around and over enormous rocks. The river banks are very steep and high. The Tang-i-Zindan, or Narrow Prison, has an evil name being liable to sudden and very violent floods in the winter, in which many caravans have been destroyed. There are only two places in a length of 15 miles where travellers could seek safety from a flood. At 12 miles the main ravine is left and a narrower ravine branching off to the right (north), at an angle of 40° is entered. The going becomes worse. At 18 miles the road climbs out of the ravine, and at 20 miles the head of a great bluff is reached Sir-i-Sikh, "the spear head" which gives the camping place its name, towers, a great red peak, to the right front. The road drops down over the watershed of the ridge, and reaches the camping ground in the ravine at 24 miles. Here some water, slightly brackish. No supplies or fuel. Grazing for mules and camels.

Sir-i-Sikh to Ahmedi 25 miles—114 miles.

The track drops down the ravine from the watershed till it again enters the Tang-i-Zindan, going west by north for six miles, then, turning north, it corkscrews up the hills till the table land is gained, at an elevation of 3,000 feet. The direct road to Kerman is left on the right as the track to Ahmedi begins to climb out of the ravine. The road to Ahmedi lies over fairly level and fairly clear ground, though there are some rather difficult places, where river beds and ravine heads are crossed. At ten miles a saucer-like plain, known as Kolichoon, is reached, with a small river flowing from low hills on the north-east which spreads into a marsh in the centre of the plain. A cluster of huts here, and some plantations of dates. Leaving the Kolichoon plain, the road lies across undulating ground, which rises steadily. Three river beds, full of tamarisk scrub, are crossed. Before the wide spreading date groves surrounding the fort and village of Ahmedi (3,060 feet) are reached. The fort is nearly a ruin. There is much cultivation at Ahmedi, and supplies of all kinds are plentiful. Grazing good. Fuel ample. Water plentiful, but slightly brackish.

Ahmedi to Nissa 25 miles—139 miles.

Leaving Ahmedi the road drops into the river bed and follows it, almost due west, for seven miles, then turns north through a wide pass the Lard-i-Ahemedi, into the plain beyond, swinging westagain, round the elbow of bare red hills, over an almost imperceptible watershed in the middle of the wide plain, and then turning northward once more towards Nissa. The Lard (gate, or open place,) of Ahmedi is a very wide pass, about 3½ miles long, bounded by precipitous cliffs, rising to 300 feet. It forms one of the spill-ways for the water

collecting in the mountain-ringed plains above. This water finds its way into the Tang-i-Zindan by the Ahmedi river. Emerging from the Lard-i-Ahmedi into a saucer-like plain, it is seen that the main drainage from the watershed runs out almost due east in the direction of the Kuh-i-Ahmedi, which towers into the sky on the right, above the village. In front, to the north, is a line of low black hills of volcanic formation. To the west and north-west rise up the more distant ridges of the Kuh-i-Fargoon. Before the small village and fort of Nissa (3,300 feet), set in date groves, are reached, the road winds amongst sand hills, and then runs down a ravine in which are the head wells of a *Kanat* from which Nissa draws its water. At Nissa supplies and fuel scarce. Good grazing for camels and mules, water plentiful, but impregnated with iron.

Nissa to Deh Sheikh 25—165 miles.

Three miles from Nissa a low watershed is crossed, and thereafter the road, a fairly easy one, winds amongst low hills, and crosses the heads of five ravine systems (three carrying the water east and north-east and two leading it west and north-west) till it debouches on a wide plain, ringed with low hills on all sides, and from which the main drainage flows north, north-west and south-west. At the farther extremity of this plain is the Tang-i-Deh Sheikh, a little more than half way between Nissa and Deh Sheikh. The Tang is a narrow corkscrew pass, some 4 miles long, lying amongst crumbling hills of many coloured argillaceous slate and marble. The difficult and dangerous pass, a favourite haunt of bandits, can, however, be avoided by going round by the open river valley. A swamp makes this road impassable in wet weather, but an embankment could be built, and a good road made at small cost. Leaving the hills the road runs again, more northerly this time, over a stony plain, till Deh Sheikh, a fort and village under craggy hills, is reached. Here there are some scanty date groves. Supplies and fuel are scarce, but there is good grazing for camels and mules. Fairly palatable water is to be had from a spring, near a *Ziarat* and grave yard, one and-a-half miles from the village.

Deh Sheikh to Dasht i-Bar 21—186 miles.

The road climbs, amongst low hills of gravel, easily into the plain of Urzu (3,700 feet) and villages and plantations of dates become more frequent. The plain is scored with lines of kanats, and a plentiful supply of slightly brackish water is to be had everywhere. At 11½ miles north-north-west from DehSheikh, the small town of Sultanabad, surrounded by cultivation and gardens, is reached. Nine-and-a-half miles west from Sultanabad, across the plain, is Dasht-i-Bar, which was at one time a very important fort and town, now a little village, surrounded by spreading fields. Supplies plentiful, and water and grazing good, but fuel scarce.

Dasht-i-Bar to Shakrab (or Lab-i-Kanaf) 10—196 miles.

Leaving Dasht-i-Bar we enter the wilderness, where there are no more villages—though in winter nomad encampments are frequently met with—and where marches have to be filled in with the water supply. Road to camp over level plain, following the course of a red fringed rivulet. At Shakrab, water good and plentiful, grazing fair, but no supplies or fuel.

Shakrab to Mubarik Hussein 22—218 miles.

A fair road but stony, running generally north-north-west over shoulder of long slope. Ground sloping away to south and south-west, ranges of grey hills to north-east. Broken ground is crossed before the camping place in the river bed is reached. Here there is a well, and watering through. Water however is very scanty and bad. A well three miles north-west has fair water in it, no supplies. Grazing for camels and mules.

Mubarik Hussein to Naokand 24—242 miles.

The road is a fair one, first running west across stony and undulating plain, then turning west-north-west across skirts of hills, till it turns more northerly through the pass of Chashm-i-Sufed. The pass is an easy one, crest of watershed 5,800 feet; lying between two districts it is, as usual, a favourite haunt of Banditti. From the Chashm-i-Sufed the road drops in easy gradients over stone strewn slopes, into the great central valley of the Kavir, which running north-west and south-east at an average elevation of 5,300 feet to Ispahan. The Kavir, or saline swamp, that lies in the centre of this bed of a prehistoric sea is about 300 miles long, with an average breadth of 30 miles. The valley itself is a desert modified by frequent oases, some of which are very fertile. At Naokand, on the edge of the Kavir, no supplies of any sort. Fuel scarce. Water salt. Good camel grazing.

Naokand to Allahabad 24—266 miles.

The road lies along the right side of the Kavir, passing over flat, moor-like ground. After eight miles patches of cultivation become frequent. At 18 miles large serai and village of Aliabad. At 22 miles Mobarikabad lies a mile to left of road, at 24 miles walled village of Allahabad. Here supplies, grazing and fuel plentiful, water slightly brackish. A good Caravanserai.

Allahabad to Saiadabad 16—282 miles.

Good road and level. There are several villages on the road between Allahabad and Saiadabad, and cultivation is nearly continuous. Many Nomad encampments were also met with. Half way is passed the old capital and strong hold, Kala-i-Sang or Kala-i-Baiza, a great crag of white lime stone, tower up steeply 300 feet above the plain, and surrounded and crowned with ruins. At ten miles a *takia* and a small walled serai. Before Saiadabad is reached three large villages are seen lying to the west from 2 to 3 miles off the road. Saiadadad the Capital of Sirjan, is a walled town of some 600 houses and a bazar of some 180 shops. The population, including the dwellers in the suburbs beyond the wall, is about 9,000. Supplies are plentiful, water from kanats fair. There is a road from here direct across the hills to Kerman and another to Yezd, by way of the wilderness and Shahr-i-Babek.

Saiadabad to Zaidabad 16—298 miles.

The road is good, lying north-west by north over rolling country. At nine miles a small village and a large walled garden are passed at the edge of the road. At 16 miles Zaidabad, a village of two thousand inhabitants with a good Caravanserai. Supplies of fodder and fuel procurable in abundance, water from *kanat* sweet and good.

Zaidabad to Pariz 25—323 miles.

The road runs north-east by east; the going is good, first over rolling ground, steadily rising till it enters the hills after crossing a wide river bed, the Rudhkhana Surkh, at 18 miles. At 12 miles the walled garden and ruined serai of Husseinabad are passed. When the road enters the hills it climbs steeply up, from 4,000 feet to Pariz, 8,000 feet, on the dividing range. The village which has a population of about 800, is a centre for the collection of manna, which is got here of a very superior quality. It is well situated on the banks of a stream and is surrounded with trees. Supplies fair. Good grazing, water and fuel.

Pariz to Gaud-i-Aihmer 24—347 miles.

The road, steep and difficult, runs north-east by north over the Gudar-i-Surakh, (10,500 feet) then winding amongst the hills, now across open slopes, now descending into ravines, only to climb out again, crossing three streams, swollen with snow water, and leads down the reverse slope of the hills. At 24 miles two walled gardens, a semi-ruinous serai, and the tiny hamlet of Gaud-i-Ahmar, "the Red Valley," so called from the colour of the cliffs surrounding it, which are very rich in oxides. No supplies. Grazing fair. Water plentiful. Fuel procurable.

Gaud-i-Aihmer to Oraf 16—363 miles.

Crossing a river bed just beyond the village, the road ascends a little, crosses a small plain, and then enters a ravine down which it runs, north by north-west, to Oraf, a hamlet of half a dozen houses built round a ruined *burj*. At 12 miles a *rahdar*, or toll house and watch tower, is passed, on the west of the road. There is grazing for camels, but no supplies. Fuel is scarce. Water good and plentiful from stream.

Oraf to Bahramabad 16—379 miles.

The road leads west down the long stony slope of the mountain skirt into the Rafsinjan valley. At eight miles a line of kanat wells is crossed and three miles farther on these kanat lines become very numerous. At 12 miles Deh Ali and two more villages, with many gardens, all surrounded by high walls to shut out the drifting sand, are passed before Abhasabad, one and-a-half miles from Bahramabad, is reached. Bahramabad is the largest village of the 30 or so in the Oasis. It contains 1,900 houses, and a fine clean bazaar of 200 shops. The population of the Oasis is reckoned at about 60,000, that of Bahramabad itself at about 9,000. Supplies of all kinds plentiful. Water from kanats good.

Bahramabad to Kabuterkhan 24½—393 miles.

The road runs south-west. Central Persian Telegraph line runs near road. Leaving the bazaars of Bahramabad, it passes through two miles of ruins, and after that walled in fields and cultivation, alternately with wide stretches of desert sand, till, at six-and-a-half miles out, the village of Abdulabad is reached. Here much cultivation fed by a good Kanat. On the road between Bahramabad and Abdulabad two lines of abandoned, and five of new Kanats. Leaving Abdulabad the going is through heavy sand for two miles, when hard ground is reached, where there is an abundant growth of camel thorn. Several lines of kanats old and new, are seen. Two miles farther on, about the same distance to right of road is the village of Nasiri. Road lies now over hard desert, bounded south and north by naked, scarped mountains, plain strewn with angular, black stones varying in size from a pea to a cottage loaf. No camel thorn or growth of any kind. At 15 miles reach a domed water tank, or *abambar*, ruined and dry. Shortly after road crosses wide dry river bed, and winds amongst small hillocks, each topped with a bush of thorn. Four miles of this, and three of hard plain, and then the road lies over alternating stones and sand till Kabuter Khan is reached. Here are two serais, poor ones and a *Chapar Khaneh*, or post house. A village of 500 inhabitants. Water plentiful. Grazing for mules and camels good. Supplies scarce, except after harvest. Fuel scarce.

Kabuterkhan to Bagin 29½— 423 miles.

Leaving Kabuter Khan the road lies down a gravel slope which dips towards the *duk* a low lying plain of saline clay soil, 12 to 14 miles wide which the least rain renders so slippery as to make it dangerous and almost impassable for camels and horses. Seven miles after leaving Kabuter Khan an abambar. At 13½ miles Robat, where good cultivation, cotton and cereals, good water supply from three large kanats, very fine new Caravanserai, standing beside ruins of an old one. Supplies and fuel available. From here onward to Bagin road good, over undulating plain and through stretches of alternating stones and sand. Plain in centre cultivated, and cut up with lines of kanats. Road keeps to northern edge of plain, the red limestone hills lying about two to three miles off. At 23 miles village of Saadi and another village seen in centre of plain which is here about 15 miles from road to southern hills. Road ascends slightly, but descends again about five miles from Bagin. Descent over stony ground. At Bagin, village of about 300 inhabitants, supplies and water plentiful. Water brackish. Fuel fair. Here a good serai near road, and a *Chapar Khaneh*.

Bagin to Kerman 21—444 miles.

Leaving Bagin, and crossing a line of deep kanats, the road lies over undulating ground, mostly gravel and sand. For the first two miles or so the road is through cultivated ground. Cultivation however continues down centre of valley, whilst road turns north-west and, rounding an outlying red spur, passes close to the base of the hills, over clay ground, after first having traversed heavy sand, till it nears the little village of Satabad, nine miles from the Consulate, Kerman. The village lies one-fourth of a mile to the north of the road. The clay belt, when we passed, was a swamp after snow. A space beyond Satabad the road from Akharabad comes in on the south side. At 4½ miles from Kerman a *paiab*, or well and rest house. The road enters Kerman at the Yezdi Gate, close to the Ark, or palace of the Governor. Here a deep ditch, and lofty, but weak, walls. Kerman a town of about 60,000 inhabitants, all supplies available in plenty. Water from kanats.

NOTE.—

The telegraph postal and main caravan road to Bam from Kerman runs *viâ* Mahun; Zein-ul-Abad; Naibid, Tarood and Darzin. On the southern tour, part of the Mission went round by Khabis, on the Dasht-i-Lut, whilst part went on to Bam by this main road. I give both routes, which reunite at Khan-i-Khatoon Tarood.)

Kerman to Mahun 21—465 miles.

Leaving Kerman, and the widespread ruins surrounding it, the road runs south-west around the spurs of craggy hills of white and grey limestone. At three and-a-half miles an irrigation channel and a line of trees are passed, with a *paiab*, and then the road enters a desolate region where the hard clay soil is overlaid with sand hills, which the wind is continuously shifting and changing. At nine miles there is another *paiab* in the middle of the desert. At 18 miles the outlying cultivation below Mahun begins. Mahun is a long straggling village, of perhaps 2,000 inhabitants, built along the banks of a stream. Here water, fuel and supplies plentiful and good. A famous artistic shrine, the Ziarat-i-Shah Niamatullah, with, beside it, a large and well-built caravan serai. Three miles south of Mahun on the skirts of the hills, the Firman Firma's gardens.

Mahun to Zein-ul-abad 16—481 miles.

Road to Mahun *viâ* Naibid keeps along bank of a stream and close to the telegraph line to north side of valley, whilst the road from Jiruft and Bam, *viâ* Rain comes in from Hanaka in the south of a weathered chain of bluffs standing in the centre. To the north the valley is bounded by abrupt and fantastically weathered mountains, snow-crowned and naked. At their base are several villages, and a Ziarat or *takieh* is visible in a poplar grove about ten miles to the left. The road steadily rises to the watershed. The brook runs by the side of the road for about ten miles. That the pass (8,000 feet) has been crossed, is only noticeable from the new trend of the water courses, so gradual are the inclines. At Zein-ul-abad no supplies of any kind. Limited water supply, no fuel, mud hut caravan serai.

Zein-ul-abad to Naibid 24—505 miles.

The road again ascends steadily, and much ravine country is crossed. Country stony and waterless. Gravel hills covered with sparse growth of camel thorn and cactus. Two watersheds are crossed before Naibid is reached. Four miles from Naibid the road lies along the bed of the Rudkhana Duzdi, or Thieves river. Three miles after leaving Zein-ul-abad two old stone-built serais, of Shah Abbas' days, are seen on the edge of the road. They are not used. At one of them an abambar, with a foot of stagnant and putrid water in it. Road descends to Naibid through belt of salt land, here a spring, and runnel of brackish and dirty water. Serai at Naibid; stone built, but in very bad state. No supplies of any kind. Fuel and fodder are brought from a distance.

Naibid to Tarood 27—532 miles.

The road climbs a long range of gravel hills immeditely after leaving the serai, and several empty water courses are crossed. Every where the road is shut in by bleak, bare, hills, except for a short distance where to the south the peaks of the Kuh-i-Hazar and the Jabel Bariz are seen. At 18—19 miles the road descends gadually into, and follows the bed of the Rudkhana-i-ab-shur, the telegraph line taking a higher loop in order to find good ground and avoid floods. To the north-east of the road is a high steep chain of scarlet hills. Nine miles from Tarood the road from Gok enters the Rudkhana-i-ab-i-shur from the left, and joins the main road two miles before it enters the village of Khan-i-Khatoon. In the Tarood valley five villages. The road passing through a mile wide tract of salt crosses a salt stream before reaching Khan-i-Khatoon, where a good caravan serai. Here supplies, fodder and fuel available. Sweet water can be procured from a stream three miles to the southern end of the valley. Supplies available in limited quantity.

Kerman to Darekht Arjoon. 21—553 miles.

Crossing the Kerman plain in north-east direction, the defile running through the foot hills of Kuh Pia range is entered at four miles. There is a steady rise from Kerman for 15 miles when the Karman-Khabis watershed is crossed, near a small village called Koorgaz. The road, fair but very stony, then declines steadily to Darekht Arjoon, which is a collection of small villages with an ample supply of good water. Forage and fire-wood as well as food supplies available.

Darekht Arjoon to Chakr Farsakh or Faizabad 25—578 miles.

The road lies easterly across the plain for a mile, then enters the bed of a small river, and becomes very bad. A steep Kotal is climbed, on the other side the Rud Sukhti is entered, along the bed of which the road runs till about the tenth mile it branches off. After a stiff climb the Anjir Pass 6,950 feet is crossed. Camel caravans cannot cross this pass, and the loads of mules and donkeys have to be reduced going over it. There is a rise of 2,500 feet in under a mile. After this there is a steady and easy slope down to Char Farsakh. Here water good and plentiful but fuel and supplies scarce.

Char-Farsakh to Khabis 10—588 miles.

Road good, down a gentle slope. At Khabis abundant cultivation, large date groves, and orange and lemon gardens. Several villages are on the oasis on the edge of the terrible desert of the Lut. The chief of these is Khabis. Supplies of all kinds and water plentiful. The place in winter has a large population, and is of considerable importance as a point on the Kerman Birjand Trade Route. It is practically deserted in the summer when the dread Bad-i-Simun blows in from the desert.

Khabis to Andujird 15—603 miles.

South-easterly for two miles, the road takes a more southerly direction and immediately enters the bed of a mountain torrent. Proceed up this for six miles, after which some low gravel hills are climbed. A deep ravine on the right. From the crest of this range which is now gained, Khabis oasis shows a garden in the desert. In the south is seen the ruined fortress of Andujird. After nine miles road is flat, and going soft and easy. At the eleventh mile a ruined watch tower is passed, standing on the top of a hill. At the twelfth mile the little village of Godiz. A few orange, lemon and date trees here. The road swings south, and the date and orange groves of Andujird are in sight all the way. *At Andujird, a village of 250 people, water is good and plentiful; fuel plentiful; grazing good, supplies limited.*

Andujird to Gok 28—631 miles.

The road trends south on leaving Andujird. At one and a half miles a river bed 499 yards wide (containing on January 9th only a trickle of water), is entered. Road proceeds up this

three miles south west when a range of low gravel hills is crossed. From this point both Khabi and Andujird are visible. All around a waste of absolutely barren and curiously contorted hills. The descent from the top of the ridge is by a very steep and rugged path to the village of Rudhbiz, at the eighth mile, a wild and picturesque spot. The village is built on a series of broad terraces. From Rudhbiz there is a short road to Gok, which runs between the Kai Kataghuni Range and the village of Hastadan. The main track after leaving Rudhbiz runs south for a mile, along the stream and then turns west, crossing a narrow pass at the twelfth mile, and this goes south east up a broad valley, and at the 15th mile reaches Hastadan. At the 18th mile a spring under a curious mushroom-shaped rock. The road thence lies over an uninteresting plain to Fandaka, at mile 22. After this a gradual ascent till the water-shed between Gok and Khabis is reached. Thence down the valley to Gok - 7,400 feet. The hills on both sides white with salt. The village stands on either side of a stream, which forms its main street, main sewer and main water supply channel. Here supplies fairly plentiful, also water and fuel. Good grazing.

Gok to Tarood Khan-i-khatoon) 40—671 miles.

After reaching the end of the valley, the road which runs in a southerly direction, ascends steadily past the village of Tukon (six miles), and the last place where even salt water is available till the Tarood valley is entered. At the seventh mile after an easy climb upon and through low gravel hills the road descends to a dry river bed, the Rudhkhana-i-Nash, and continues along this till at the eleventh mile it emerges a level sandy plain about seven miles long. At mile 18 another river bed is entered and followed up south to the twenty-fourth mile, where another level sandy plain is traversed. A low pass is crossed at the twenty-seventh mile, and a steady descent made south-east into the Tarood valley. At the thirtieth mile a road is seen branching off the right. This is the road *viâ* Naibid to Kerman. At the thirty-first mile the Tarood valley is entered and the Kerman and Gok roads join, at two miles from Khan-i-Khatoon.

Tarood to Darzin 30—701 miles.

The road, passing through much cultivated ground, goes east down valley. At three miles a stream of fresh water is crossed and the road then turns a little northerly out of the valley over undulating ground, after passing through a wide gorge, under the ruins of an old fort. It then sweeps east again and descends the hills to Abarik, or Avarak, at ten miles, a village standing at the base of a high black crag, which is crowned with a ruined castle. Leaving Abarik two miles to the south, the road continues across the desolate, stone-strewn, plain in which this crag is situated, and crossing several dry nallahs, reaches, at the twentieth mile, the outlying cultivation round Darzin. At Darzin, a village of 250 souls, fair water from kanats; but fuel, grazing and supplies all scarce.

Darzin-Bam 18—719 miles.

Leaving Darzin, the road runs east over dreary, desolate stone-tortured country. The going is level, and the ruins that abound on all sides show that the tale of the one time populousness of the region is not a myth. Two wide and several small nallahs are crossed, whose banks tell of much flood water rushing to waste. Nearing Bam town matters improve. Irrigation cuts, fields and date groves are seen everywhere. Numerous lines of kanat wells score the plain. At 12 miles a wide river-bed, that of the Bam River, is crossed and beyond this is Ziarat, serai and a small village, are passed. Bam, capital of Bam-Narmashahir, a straggling town, set in date groves and gardens about 10,000 inhabitants, Persian fort, not in ruins, above the site of the ancient walled city. Rich commercial centre. All supplies available in quantity. Water good from streams and kanats. Many villages in neighbourhood, to east and south-east.

Bam to Kuruk 21—740 miles.

Road first goes easterly three miles, passing through rough hilly ground, cut up by lines of kanats, near large village of Baro, then bends south by south-west. All along the march there is water. Supplies and grazing plentiful. Several villages near Kuruk which is the centre of a well irrigated tract of country.

Kuruk Arjaman 22—762 miles.

These places lying off the caravan track, the roads are only field paths. Striking south-easterly towards the main road, several kanats, many inhabited villages, and the ruins of several other villages are passed. Road lies through cultivation all the way. Near Arjaman a large ravine, with high steep banks, is crossed, which during flood carries a lot of water. Supplies plentiful, *en route*, but none at Arjaman itself. Grazing and water good.

Arjaman to Burj-i-Alikhan. 13—775 miles.

Road lies through well cultivated country. Track strikes main route and broadens at Burj-i-Alikhan. Going good. Supplies fair. Water good, and fuel plentiful.

Burj-i-Alikhan to Rigan 16—791 miles.

Good road first through cultivation five miles, then two miles of tamarisk scrub, in which, two lines of kanats (ruined) are crossed, then six miles over desert plain, hard gravel and sand, where two more ruined kanats are crossed. Another two miles of thorn and tamarisk jungle, and then a little cultivation, and a water cut near Rigan are crossed. Rigan is in ruins. Supplies are collected from villages lying to the west for the desert marches north and south. Good grazing for camels, fair water supply.

Rigan to Gulmurg (Dahana-i-Abbas Ali) 40—831 miles.

For the first 18 miles, after leaving the cultivation lying to the south-east of Rigan, the going is good, the road lying over hard, gravel country. At nine miles the road and telegraph line to Farhaj continue east, the road to Mil-i-Farhad, bending south by a little west at 18 miles, after crossing much rough country, and winding round hillocks of sand and gravel, it drops into the Rud Khana Kurund. At the twentieth mile there is a camping place in the river, at Durampi, where wood, water and grass can be got. After this the road becomes indescribably bad, crossing bluffs strewn thick with sharp-edged volcanic rocks, and ultimately entering the Dahana-i-Abbas Ali, where there is a camping place, and a little cultivation on

terraces at Gulmarg a couple of miles inside the ravine. Water but no wood, or supplies available. Grazing for camels only.

Road improves, and track becomes visible amongst the stones. Way lies three miles up ravine, where a smaller ravine is entered on the left hand, bearing 87 degrees, in which lies the Gudar-i-Ghishu, which is crossed six miles from camp. The pass is a fairly steep one but the whole road, bad as it is, would offer no difficulties to the building of a railway. Continuing down the river bed, the road gradually ascends the right bank, then crosses again at Mil-i-Farhad, where the camping place is on a plateau under an immense rock from which the place is named, the Pillar, or Post, of Farhad. No supplies of any sort. Fuel scanty. Water from river salt. Good water to be had from spring half mile east of rock. At Farhad three roads take off, one going east to Baluchistan, the other two being the alternative routes south-south-west to Bander Abbas, the one to the west passing through Jiruft and the Rud Khana-i-Duzdi, the main road continuing south.

Dahana-i-Abbas Ali to Mil-i-Farhad 15—846 miles.

First half of road stony, lying over undulating ground between the foot hills and the plain. After 14 miles road crosses three wide dry river beds, full of sand, and then, ascending on to high ground to the south, continues over gravel-strewn clay, offering fairly good going to Nasitabad, where there is a little cultivation and water. Here fire-wood is available, but no supplies. The place lies a mile east of the main caravan route. There are three groves of palms at Nasitabad, and two more about three miles north-west.

Mil-i-Farhad to Nasitabad 27—873 miles.

For first 12 miles after leaving cultivation and kanat at Nasitabad, where there were some huts belonging to Rudbari Nomads the road lies over sandy hummocky country, and the going is little heavy. Leaving the main route on our left, we struck across country, our route lying between the two Bander Abbas roads. At the twelfth mile we came to a pool of rain water, surrounded by trees, in a small valley. A little farther on was a great stretch of abandoned cultivation, with the ruins of a village. The character of the country changed. Everywhere it was green with grass, and covered with flowers, whilst frequent clumps of magnificent tamarisks gave it the appearance of a park. Twelve miles farther on we saw more abandoned cultivation, and at the twenty-ninth mile passed the ruins of a village. After this there was much cultivation, and many empty huts. The people of the country had all bolted, owing to the Governor, the Ain-ul-Mulk, having come into the district. At Beijanabad which was surrounded by wide stretches of cultivation, there was a plentiful supply of water, and ample grazing. All other supplies were scanty.

Nasitabad to Beijanabad 34—907 miles.

The road lies for six miles through cultivation, and by the side of a canal of good water, thirteen miles from camp the road enters a region of low hills formed of limestone detritus, and crossing six shallow salt streams, which spread into marshes surrounded by tall rushes, ascends the higher Jiruft plain through a series of ravines. Much abandoned cultivation is passed. At Sang-i-Safeid the ground is impregnated with salt. Water from Kanat. No supplies.

Beijanabad to Sang-i-Safeid 24—931 miles.

The road lies over undulating plain, cut up by Kanats and irrigation channels, for the first five miles, then, passing through considerable cultivation, crosses, at 8½ miles, the Halil Rud. Another mile and-a-half of cultivation, and, after passing through dense jungle of tamarisk scrub, Gaz Sala, standing in saline, but cultivated, ground, is reached. Our camp was pitched on a gravel slope a mile to the South of Gaz Sala. Supplies and water plentiful.

Sang-i-Safeid to Gaz Sala 16—947 miles.

Road through cultivated ground, and good all the way. Water and supplies good for small camps.

Gaz Sala to Bag-i-Baboo 12—959 miles.

Fair road but stony, over many river beds. Patches of cultivation all the way. At Subsebaran water and supplies available in quantity. At seven miles village of Hookird, with two water miles, passed. Near this a country house and *Hammam* belonging to Mohammad Khan, Jirufti.

Bagh-i-Baboo to Subsebaran. 9—968 miles.

Road north-west over very stony ground. At seven miles, crosses the Rud Shur, in flood at the time. Two water-sheds are crossed, going difficult before the Sakhdar River is crossed to camp on terrace above, on the slope of the main range. At Sakhdar water, fuel and grazing for camels. No supplies.

Subsebaran to Sakhdar 21—989 miles.

Ascending the hill north-north-west the road, now very good, crosses the Gudar Ushteran four miles from camp. Then, winding on the edge of the snow line, through broad, shallow, saucer-like villages nearly all of which are cultivated, it crosses a second pass, the Gudar Surkh, before its final climb over the high, but not very difficult, Gudar-i-Deh-Bakri (7,000 ft.) Through the valley of Deh Bakri to Murgakh (5,700 ft.) the road lies in the river bed. At Murgakh the road to Bam strikes off on the right bank of the river. At Murgakh, water and scanty supplies, available.

Sakhdar to Murgakh 22—1,011 miles.

Climbing out of the river on its left bank the road crosses much switch-back and stony country, but the track is good. At 12 miles a broad river (dry) is passed, and Serbistan, where there is a good serai, and a village with cultivation, irrigated from two Kanats is reached. Here the Central Persian telegraph line is struck. Water good and supplies fairly plentiful at Serbistan.

Murgakh to Serbistan 5—1,026 miles.

Good road over gravelly ground. At the sixth mile a wide ravine is passed and between that and Pah Ban many streams of water. Camp near large serai on stony, wind-scourged slopes. Water salt. No supplies. No fuel. Grazing for mules close by.

Serbistan to Pah Bane 12—1,038 miles.

A good and level road. At the fourteenth mile pass a ruined serai, and a good Kanat, with cultivation. Road continues over gravel slopes, winding amidst rounded hills, till it suddenly

Pah Bane to Ratin —1061 miles.

emerges out of a ravine into the midst of the cultivation round Rain. This is a large village with a ruined fort, and extensive plantations of fruit trees, mostly walnut and almond. Water good and plentiful. Supplies ample.

Raiin to Haneka 26—1,087 miles.

Seven miles across the plain crossing at one mile, a stream from a line of Kanats. Then the slopes of Kuh Askari are climbed. From here the road winds along wide valleys and across shallow ravines under gently sloped hills of gravel. At the seventeenth mile a ruined caravan serai is reached. There is a spring of good water here, behind the hill to the east of the serai. After leaving the serai the ascent of the pass begins. It is so gradual that the crest is passed at 19½ miles, almost before one is aware of it. The descent towards the north is as gradual as the ascent. There is a caravan serai at Haneka, situated in the rather dreary valley, just above some patches of cultivation. There are not more than a dozen people living at the place in the winter. The water is sweet and good, but supplies and forage are obtainable only in limited quantities.

Haneka to Mahun (The Farman Farma's Garden, 3 miles south of the village.) 32½—1,099½ miles.

Leaving Haneka the road follows the stream down the valley north 4½ miles, first on the right then on the left bank, bending then westward, and winds round the skirts of low gravelly and sand-stone hills for four miles. Here, crossing a river, it emerges from the hilly country on to the southern slope of the main valley in which Mahun is situated. Three miles from the village of Mahun a path takes off west-south-west to the Farman Farma's garden, crossing the Kanat, and continuing across the stony and thorn-strewn slope for 3½ miles. Mahun village is three miles long, and stands on both banks of a perennial stream. Water good. Supplies of all sorts plentiful. Good caravan serai.

Mahun to Kerman 21—1120½ miles.

Described.

Kerman to Bahramabad 75—1,195½ miles.

Described.

Bahramabad to Kush Kuh 22½—1,218 miles.

Road over cultivated plain, edged by desert, which is full of lines of kanats. The road approaches the mountains on the southern edge of the valley, and then begins, after the fourth mile to bend more to the north over the waste of sand and gravel. Four villages, Mahdiabad, Kudratabad, Dahanabad, and Hurmuzabad are passed at miles 10—12. At 14 miles Dafah lies on left of the road, a mile off. At 15 miles an abambar. The character of the ground now changes, from sand to salt-impregnated, hummocky ground, covered with a scant growth of dwarf tamarisks. At 19 miles an irrigation stream and ruined garden. At 20 walled garden. At 22½ Kush Kuh, close to the mountains on the south. Water fair. Village small. Supplies scarce. A *chaper khaneh* and a caravan serai.

Kush Kuh to Anar 32½—1,253½ miles.

Leaving Kush Kuh the road lies through cultivation, walled in to defend it from the sand. After 1½ miles a village with more cultivation, but also more ruined houses. After 4½ miles a large village, a mile off the road to the right. The plain over which the road lies is bounded north and south by steep and arid mountains. The village Shahamabad is seen two miles to the right after 13 miles. Bayaz, where there is a village with serai and post house, good supplies and water, is reached at 16½ miles. After this the going changes from sand and saline clay to stony track, and after this the path lies across hard gravel slopes. After 28 miles, ruins of Daulatabad with Imam Zadeh. Anar reached at 32½ miles, the last three through cultivation. Here are an old ruined fort on a hill, serai, telegraph office, and good post house. 3,000 inhabitants. Water good. Supplies usually good.

Anar to Shims 20½—1,274 miles.

Road first over stony land overlaid with clay beds, flooded when we passed. Then changes to desert of gravel, with here and there flat outcrops of white limestone. At five miles ruined serai, where thieves usually lurk. Going good. Road bounded on north by low sand ridge. As Shims is neared ground becomes somewhat broken by rocky outcrops and shallow drainage channels. At Shims a post house and a half ruined serai of Shah Abbas' time. No supplies. Limited supplies of slightly brackish water, which is reported to be intensely salt at certain seasons of the year.

Shims to Mehndiabad (Banderoon) 19—1,293 miles.

Road west over hard clay plain, absolute desert, ascending gradually to watershed on range of low red limestone hills. High sand hills toward which the road gradually tends, lie all the way on the right north at about five miles distance. To south ranges of snow topped mountains run south-east-north-west. At nine miles the road lies between low hills. The watershed is crossed at 11 miles, and at 12 miles the post road to Yezd *viâ* Karman Shahan, continues on, whilst the newer road following the telegraph line *viâ* Banderoon branches off slightly more to the northward. Kerman Shahan, under a bold black hill, and the group of villages at Banderoon both visible from the pass. The old road is very bad, water and supplies alike being absent over three stages. At Banderoon there is good water from kanats, and supplies are fairly plentiful. Good serai.

Mehndiabad to Daulatabad (Girde Kuh) 15—1,398 miles.

The road lies west over plain of hard, limy clay, resembling mortar, which is cut up by shallow nallahs, and covered with gravel, just on the outer skirts of a ten mile long range of lofty and precipitous red limestone hills, the loftiest crag of which is twisted like an antelope horn. The road skirts this range of hills, and then to Girde Kuh, the name applied to the highest of several small villages clustering at the base of a mountain which is seen from Mehndiabad as a black triple peak. The chief of these villages are Daulatabad, Kala Nao, and Girde Kuh. Crossing a kanat behind the new serai, which was standing half built at Mehndiabad, the road comes abreast of the red mountain at the third mile and continues along its foot till the thirteenth mile, where following the mountain, it bends south to

Daulatabad. There good water from kanat, and fair supplies at ordinary times. When we were there, however, the villages had just been looted, first by a dacoit, and then for the second time, and more thoroughly, by a Government *Mamoor* sent in pursuit of him.

Daulatabad to Sar-i-Yezd 18—1,323 miles.

The road lies across an absolutely desert plain, like that which we crossed the previous day, of a mortar-like formation, covered with coarse gravel, two miles from Daulatabad the roads to Sar-i-Yezd, and that to Farhaj, along which runs the telegraph line, bifurcate to the south-west of a deserted fortified village and walled garden. The Farhaj road goes west, passing close to a *rahdar* or watch-tower which Sar-i-Yezd track strikes south-south-west over plain. At eight miles a kanat, running west, a large stream of intensely salt water. At nine miles a shallow nallah, showing drainage is here west-north-west. Near Sar-i-Yezd the ground is much cut up and broken. Road from Kerman *viâ* Kermanshahan and Zain-u-Din, seen coming in from the east, from between two high, black hills, and joins our road at the gate of the village. Sar-i-Yezd is a large village, of 800—900 inhabitants, but is half in ruins. Water plentiful and good from kanats. Supplies of all sorts plentiful.

Sar-i-Yezd to Yezd 26—1,352 miles.

After leaving the narrow streets of the village, the road goes west over the desert. A mile from Sar-i-Yezd a large walled garden is passed and two lines of kanats, one ruined, crossed. After this comes hard gravel desert, alternating with heavy sand. At six miles the village of Takiabad lies on the right of the road. Nearly nine miles out an abambar stands on the right, north, side of the road. At 15 miles the large village of Mohammadabad, about 1,000 inhabitants. Much cultivation here of melons, opium, cereals and vegetables, as well as grapes and mulberries. Cultivation mainly carried on by Guebrs, who are more industrious and clever than are the Mohammadans. At Mohammadabad a caravan serai and *chaper khaneh*. Supplies plentiful. It stands on the junction of the Shiraz-Saiadabad and Kerman roads. There is continuous cultivation from here to within two miles of Yezd when a wilderness of sand hills is entered, which stretches for miles all round the town. At 19 miles the road passes through the village of Rahimatabad. At 26 miles Yezd. Large town 60,000 inhabitants. Supplies good. Water fair from kanats.

Yezd to Taft 15—1,367 miles.

Once the cultivation round Yezd is left behind, the going becomes good. At seven miles from the city is the bifurcation of the roads leading to the north of the city, *viâ* Bagh-i-Nadir, and to the southern quarters of the city. At eight miles Zainabad, half in ruins, is passed and a quarter of a mile beyond this a stream is crossed. The village of Mubarakh lies one mile off the road to the left. At ten miles pass through scattered ruins and much cultivation, and a quarter of a mile farther on enter the river bed which is followed up to Taft. Taft is a very long and straggling village, half in ruins (4,000 to 5,000 inhabitants in summer: winter 800). Good water from river and springs. Food supplies, forage and fire-wood available. Road practicable for wheels.

Taft to Aliabad 23—1,390 miles.

From Taft the road follows the river for a mile, then turns left, up the right bank, and after rounding great lime-stone crags, it enters, through a long narrow valley, the broader valley in which is the beginning of the cultivation round Farasha. Two miles from Taft is Bagh-i-Sad, and three miles farther on the Taft district ends. Here the road to Deh-i-Dalor branches off to the left. Farasha, a mean little village, mostly ruins, but with plentiful water and cultivation, is reached at twelve miles. Here the road goes more south-east. The road to Sanich branches off to the right up the valley. Crossing the great easy slopes from the hills on the left, the road winds, sometimes over stony ground, to Aliabad. One and-a-half miles from Aliabad it dips into the river bed which forms the main street of the village. Many plantations and villages are seen in the valley to the right. Aliabad lies at the foot of high snow-covered mountains. Here water plentiful; fuel and supplies scarce. Road just possible for wheels.

Aliabad to Deh-i-Shir 20—1,410 miles.

Leaving Aliabad, the road turns up over the right bank of the stream running through the village, and passing through the small village of Dehno, one mile out, winds over slopes that become gradually more steep, till the pass, Gardan-i-Aliabad, is reached, at six miles, the last of which, to the crest, is very steep and broken, as are also the two miles of declivity on the south side. After this the going becomes more easy, following the river to Dehrishk, 9½ miles, and then till the zig-zag at 10½ miles leading to the plain of the Kavir. This zig-zag lies over rock. It is a mile long and is very bad. After this the going is good, till, at 20 miles, Deh-i-Shir is reached. Here fair water. Supplies bad. No fuel. Carriages have been brought over the pass.

Deh-i-Shir to Shamsabad 39—1,449 miles.

Leaving Deh-i-Shir the road runs south-west by south, in an almost straight line, across the *Kavir*, or salt desert, to Shamsabad. The village cultivation and broken ground end at four miles. At 9½ miles is a ruined fort, Kalah Koneh, on the road, to the right, and then four ravines. The fort is a favourite hiding place of robbers, and the passage of the whole plain is dangerous. At 27 miles is a large pool of rain water, in the middle of a great salt pan. At 39 miles the village of Shamsabad, the walled cultivation, beginning at 37 miles. The villages of Raisabad, Faizabad, and Shaharaza lie close to Shamsabad. Water at these villages good and plentiful, from kanats, scant and salt in summer, however. Supplies fair. Fuel scarce.

Shamsabad to Haneshk 32—1,481 miles.

Leaving Shamsabad the road lies south, passing, at one and-a-half miles, through Shaharaza, and its cultivation, for half a mile. It then passes over a bare plain. Some isolated lime stone hills stand on the right, and a red crag on the left, of the road. On the hills to the right is a domed tower, the Dakhmé Darab, behind which lie the town and cultivation of Abargu. From here five miles to Mehrabad. The road passes through some walled

cultivation, crosses two old kanats, and one new and deep one. Open channels in places. Extensive cultivation at Mehrabad. The village of Ardi, or Hardi, lies about four miles to the right. After leaving the cultivation of Mehrabad the road is over desert. Ground undulating. Four lines of kanats are passed before twenty-third mile. Here an abambar. A drainage channel is here entered and crossed. A low range of rocky hills rounded at 27 miles. At 28 miles the road enters the bed of the Haneshk river, and at 29 enters the Tang-i-Hanashk. Keeping to the right bank the road reaches the camping ground at Haneshk (6,500 feet) a little above river bed on left bank. Here water good and plentiful. No supplies or fuel. Grazing for mules and camels only, though even that is scanty.

Haneshk to Dehbid 16—1,497 miles.

Leaving the camping place on the river bank, the road continues along the right bank of the stream, through a gorge. Valley gradually widens out, and flattens, with the rising ground, the river trickling, a small stream, through marshy ground in a centre of the shallow valley. The road lies across it, leaving the stream to the left. Here a camping ground. At 11 miles the road crosses the Gurdan-i-Goshti (8,500 feet) and descends gradually into the Dehbid plain. From the gap of the Pass, Dehbid shows five miles off, a small village of domed huts and square walled garden of poplar trees, in which stands the telegraph station. The Dehbid plain is a favourite camping ground for Arab and Kashkai nomads, who come up here in summer from the Garamsir. It is well supplied with water and, though treeless, is in summer green with crops and grass. On the north-west is seen the road from Ispahan, which enters over the Kolikush Pass. The plain is surrounded by low hills. Supplies and firewood at Dehbid are scarce. A new and large caravan serai is being built near the telegraph garden.

Dehbid to Meshed-i-Murgab 29—1,526 miles.

Leaving Dehbid the track, crossing the plain for a mile and-a-half, descends, winding amongst and over hills, to the upper waters of the Polvar, which it crosses by a bridge near the old caravan serai of Khan-i- Khargoon. The Polvar, which waters the plains of Murgab, Mervdasht and Hajiabad, continues near the road, now on one side now on the other, till, not far from the Shiraz, it falls into the Kur above the Pul-i-Khan, the united waters being called the Rud-i-Band-i-Amir. From Khan-i-Khargun the road follows the valley for ¾ of a mile, then turns sharp right and climbs a lofty range of hills, the path being very steep and stony. Making a big loop on the south side it crosses many desolate ridges till it reaches the source of a stream watering the villages of Radrat-Abad and Murgab. This last lies in a tree-covered valley at the foot of the hills. The valley is well cultivated. Water is good. Supplies, however, are scanty. Fuel is scarce. There is a post house at Murgab. Road impassable for wheels. The carriage road branches off at a little below Dehbid, making a circuit *viâ* Abbasabad which avoids the gorge of the Polvar, and brings it out at Sivand.

Murgab to Sivand 28—1,554 miles.

Leaving Murgab, and passing through much cultivation, after crossing two low ridges, Deh-Nau, a hamlet, with telegraph station, is reached at the fifth mile. Bearing to the left, two miles farther on, are the ruins of classic Pasargadæ, and the tomb of Cyrus (Musjid-i-Madir-i-Suliman). At 9½ miles the gorge of the Polvar, named Tang-i-Bulakai, which is nearly filled by the river, is entered. A mile within the Tang is a path hewn in the rock on the right bank, known as the Sangbur, used in time of flood. At other times the road lies along the bed or banks of the river. The gorge twice widens out into open valleys, and twice contracts, till it holds only the river and the road. At 17 miles the road enters the valley of Kovamabad, after winding between low bluffs. Here is a very fine caravan serai. Three miles farther the river is forded, the bridge having been swept away by a flood. Water to saddle flaps and running strong. A fair road to Sivand, which is a village of 2,000 inhabitants. Here a telegraph rest house. Serai in village. Water plentiful. Valley planted with vines and cut up by irrigation channels.

Sivand to Puza 16—1,570 miles.

Leaving Sivand the road continues along the left bank of the river, lying from a half to two miles from its edge and running under the hills. There are four villages situated in the intervening ground, and much cultivation. At Puza a post house. Water, but no fuel or supplies of any kind to be had.

Puza to Zargoon 20—1,594 miles.

The road lies across the Mervdasht plain, which is studded with villages, and much cut up by irrigation channels, many of which are of considerable size and depth. At 14 miles the river is again met with. It is now very deep, the water being held up by the Band-i-Amir, 12 miles (three farsakhs) lower down. Below its junction with the Kur it is crossed by the Pul-i-Khan, a narrow, high-backed, structure of three large and two small arches. Winding for a short distance amongst low hills, the road emerges into a low-lying mountain-girdled plain in which Zargoon stands. Before the village, which is somewhat off the track, is reached, the road passes by means of a stone causeway, for over a mile across a swamp. The causeway is in a deplorable condition. At Zargoon water and all supplies plentiful.

Zargoon to Shiraz 20—1,614 miles.

Leaving Zargoon the road at once enters the hills. For the first 2½ miles it is good enough, after this it becomes steep, tilting up and down hill, and is covered with stones of all sizes, which make rapid travelling impossible. Four spurs are crossed before, at ten miles, the valley of Bajgah is reached, with, at the foot of the road as it rises on the Shiraz side, an old toll station, from which the valley takes its name. The road here becomes very steep and bad, but carriages are brought over it. At the crest of the rise is the source of the stream Ruknabad, which runs beside the road nearly all the way to Shiraz. At 14 miles the fort and cultivation of Mubarakabad. At 20 miles the gate of "Tang-i-Allah-Hu-Akbar." British Consulate two miles beyond this, with, beside it, the telegraph garden, Bagh-i-Sheikh

Shiraz a city of between 60,000 and 70,000 inhabitants, and capital of the province of Fars. Several serais in city. Water from kanats plentiful. Rich bazars. All supplies available.

Shiraz to Dasht-i-Arzen
40—1,654 miles.
Double stage.
Usual stages,
Shiraz to Khan-i-Zinian.
Khan-i-Zinian to Dasht-i-Arzen.

Bad road, hilly and stony. Eight miles out, Chena-i-Rahdar, where are a caravan serai and a toll station on the bank of the river Karagatch, at the head of a bridge which carries the road over it. Road so far lies over stony plain. Here it enters the hills. The river is crossed three times by small bridges. At 23 miles the village of Deh Sheikh lies one mile to the right of the road. At 28 miles is the stage, with two serais, of Khan-i-Zinan. From here the road drops into the valley of the Karagatch river, then climbs over a wooded ridge by the Sina Safeid Pass (7,400 feet), into the valley of Dasht-i-Arzen. A lake surrounded by swamp fills the lower end of the valley. This is the source of one of the tributaries of the Shahpur River known as the Rudkilah where it enters the Persian Gulf, between Bander Rig and Bushire. Dasht-i-Arzen is a village of 800 inhabitants. A tumble down serai in village. Telegraph rest house outside. Water plentiful. Supplies scarce. Good grazing. Fire-wood plentiful.

Dasht-i-Arzen to Mian-i-Kotal
12—1,667 miles.

After leaving the valley the road, which is more like an avalanche track than a road, climbs steeply over a hill covered with a sparse growth of oak by the Pass of the Old Woman, "Kotal-i-Birzan," to the serai of Mian-i-Kotal, situated something more than half way down on the south side. At Mian-i-Kotal water is bad and scarce. There are no supplies. The road down to the serai is worse than that up from the lake.

Mian-i-Kotal to Kazaroon
22—1,688 miles.

Leaving the serai of Mian-i-Kotal, the road continues for miles down the Pass to the valley of Dasht-i-Barm, "the Plain of the Oaks." Across this, the road runs for five miles, and is nearly flat to the Kotal-i-Dokhter, the Pass of the Maid. Here the road corkscrews down the face of the precipice. The road was built 800 years back, and was repaired about eighty years ago, but it is now in a worse condition than ever, and is infinitely worse than the Kotal-i-Pirzan. It consists of great irregular blocks of stone, worn smooth and slippery by the hoofs of innumerable mules. The filling material between the paving blocks has long since disappeared, and between the holes thus left, and the slippery state of the path, it is almost impossible for mule or horse to go up or down this Pass without falling. A very low breast wall guards in some places the edge of the precipice. At the foot of the Pass the plain of Kazaroon is reached near a tiny hamlet, close to the edge of a large swamp-like lake from which the Shahpur River has its rise. This river, flowing north-west, is crossed below the lake by the Pul-i-Abgineh, the Bridge of the Mirror, a narrow stone causeway. Road and river both run north-west. Road lies through richly cultivated land on the south side of the river down the valley to Kazaroon, which is a town of 5,000 to 6,000 inhabitants. The population of the valley is 20,000 (about). The valley is bounded on the south side by a very high range of precipitous red limestone mountains, the Kuh-i-Mahas. The valley is extensively cultivated, cereals and opium being mainly raised. Supplies usually very plentiful and cheap, but are scarce in the spring. Water plentiful. Fuel scarce.

Kazaroon to Konartakhteh
30—1,718 miles.
Double stage.
Usual stages,
Kazaroon to Kamarij and
Kamarij to Konartakhteh.

The road follows the Kuh-i-Mahas, running between these and the Shahpur River, which lies about 3½ miles to the north, hidden by fields of corn and poppies. At nine miles the road bends round the flank of the Kuh-i-Mahas, and works back south-south-east on their southern side, whilst the river makes a great loop northwards and westwards, past the side of the ancient royal city of Shahpur, and so works its way down to the plains below Daliki. The road reaches at 14 miles the plain of Kamarij by the narrow and difficult defile of the Tang-i-Turkhan. Leaving the village of Kamarij to the right, the road climbs a low bounding-ridge (200 feet above the plain), and then, by the Kotal-i-Kamarij, drops down the precipices of the outer range to the plain of Kisht, in the middle of which is situate Konartakhteh. The road is difficult and steep to a degree, yet it is, in all respects, better than that on the Kotal-i-Dokhtar, since no one has ever attempted to build a paved way and the path offers good foothold. In some places the road has been revetted. The path is so narrow, however, that two mules cannot pass at the same time, except in a very few places; one or other would have to either go over the cliff into the ravine, or move backwards till a chance of being able to turn or side-track came. The length of the Pass, from the crest to where the ravine joins the main stream of the Shahpur River, is nearly four miles, the descent, in less than a mile, from an elevation of 3,100 to 1,400 feet. From the bed of the Shahpur River the road climbs a range of low hills to the plain of Kisht (elevation 1,850 feet) and passes over undulating ground to Konartakhteh, which is one of three villages set in extensive fields of grain and groves of date palms. Here supplies fair. Water bad.

Konartakhteh to Borasjoon 33—1,751 miles.
Double stage.
Usual stages,
Konartakhteh to Daliki and Daliki to Borasjoon.

Road lies over the plain for 3½ miles, to the hills bounding it, then down the Kotal Mal'un (the Pass of Cursing) to the bed of the Daliki River. The pass is the longest, and the last of these terribly trying Kotals of the Tangistan. For badness it cannot compare, however, with any one of the others above. The mules, avoiding the attractive, but deadly-dangerous, paved road, the "Sangband," have worn in the rock a number of branching paths up and down the mountain side. These now unite and now divide, but permit of more than one mule going up and down at the same time. The river is crossed at the ninth mile by a fine stone bridge of six arches. At the head of the bridge, on the right bank a ruined fort. After climbing a last low rock ridge, the road dips into the plain, which stretches away to the Gulf. Daliki is reached at 17 miles. It is a tiny village set in great palm groves. Near by are a bitumen pit, and naptha oozings, unsuccessfully tapped by the Mining Rights Syndicate. In the plain the Daliki and Shahpur Rivers meet, and flow into the Gulf, north of Bushire, under the name of the Shahpur or Rudhilah.

Between Daliki and Borasjoon the road lies over undulating ground along the foot of the hills. It is very stony and bad. Many nallahs are crossed, and two low ridges climbed before Borasjoon is reached. At mile 25 the village of Rahdar, with cultivation, is passed. There are numerous other villages in the plain. Borasjoon is a town of 8,000 inhabitants. Here are a very fine double-storeyed caravan serai, and two telegraph offices, one Indo-European and one Persian. From Borasjoon the Persian Telegraph line branches off to Mohammerah. Here water fair, from wells, but scanty. Supplies not plentiful.

Borasjoon to Shief 30—1,781 miles.

Road almost due south-west, leading straight to Sheif. Going good. At seven miles a river bed, nearly dry is crossed. At 8½ miles the village of Khoshab, where the last good water procurable ought to be taken, as there is nothing at Sheif but a ruined serai and a "tea house" kept by the road guards. At 15 miles the village of Naokal, where there is a well of brackish water. At 30 miles Shief, and the sea. From here to Bushire 1½ hours (nine miles about) steam or sail across the shallow bay.

Bushire 1,790.

END OF ITINERARY OF MISSION IN PERSIA.

G. I. C. P. O.—No. 2484 F. D.—6-1-1906— —L. G. G.

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Gudar-i-Surakh
Perti
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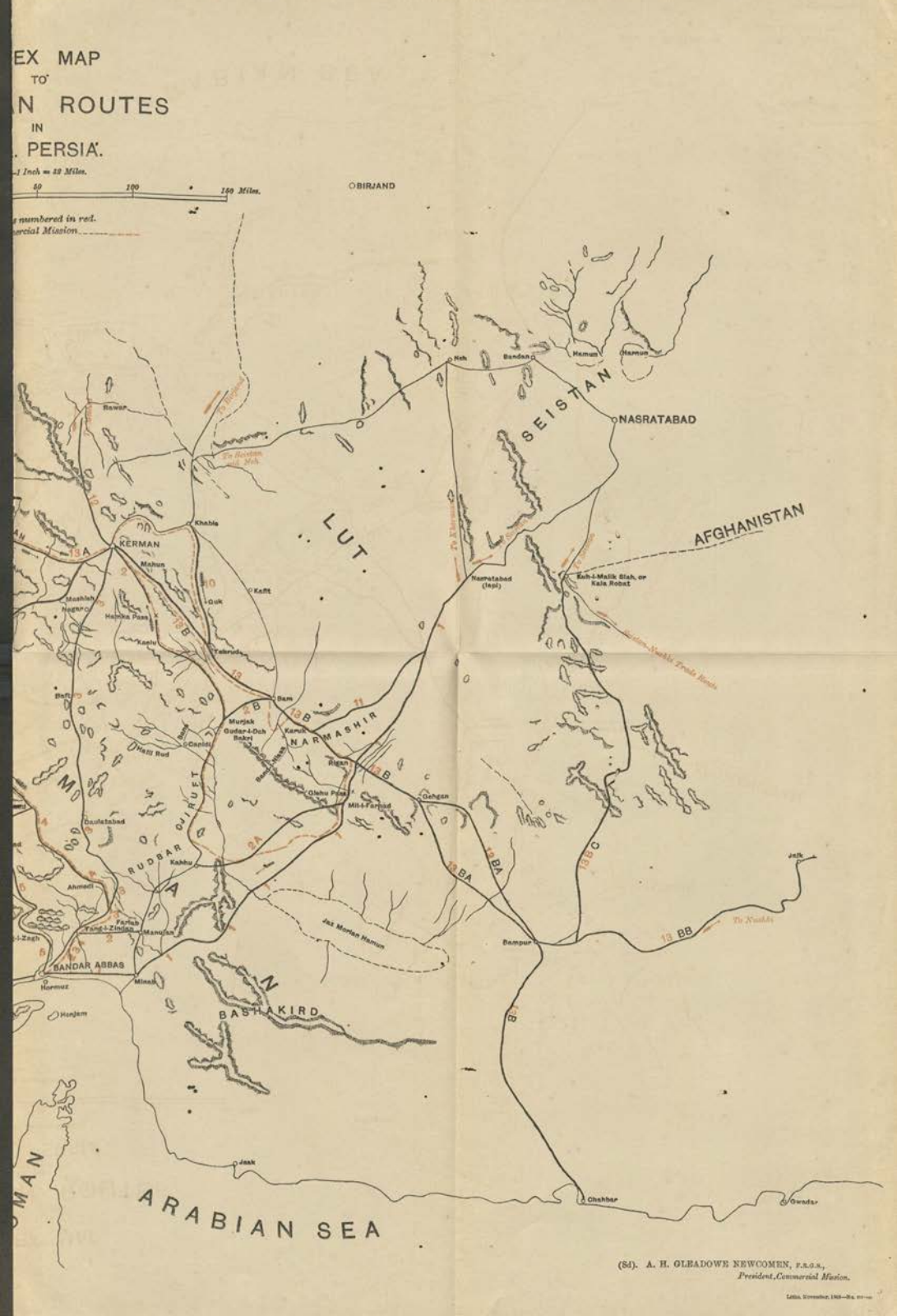

(Sd). A. H. GLEADOWE NEWCOMEN, F.R.G.S.,
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